Salestalk: selling a course in pistol-shooting for the police to a city council. See a. S. a. H immediately

Pistol and Revolver Shooting. 799.3 H57f.

Effective speaking: produces its effect.

Elements of eff. speaking:

1) content
2) composition
3) delivery

Delivery: presentation of material.

1) Voice.
2) Bodily ~~movement~~ activity.
3) adaptation to the audience.

Another speech on current events (2-3 min. don't write out.

Tues.: H and in an outline of a sales speech

Purpose: To sell the audience a product.

1. Promote want.
2. Show how the prod. satisfies want.
3.

Have illustrations + examples.

Speech details.

Introduction

1. Approach.
2. Partition (not used in sales speech)

Mention cost; tell where to buy.

Sales talk. Know material and customer
Personality (favorable impression).
Sincerity.

1. Economic situation.
2. Competition.
3. Price.
4. The salesman.

1. Never criticize.
2. Make customer feel important.
3. Talks to customer in terms of what he wants
4. Don't argue.
5. admit(when wrong.
6. Do things for people.
7. Be a good listener.
8. Remember names.

1. Don't talk too much.
2. Don't interrupt.
3. Don't argue.
4. Know product and individual.
5. Answer main objections.
6. Concentrate on key issues.

"Probs. in Bus. & Prof. Speaking"
Pamphlet.

BUSINESS AND PROFESSIONAL SPEAKING

WILLIAM PHILLIPS SANDFORD, PH.D.
ASSOCIATE PROFESSOR AND HEAD OF THE COURSES IN PUBLIC SPEAKING
UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS

AND

WILLARD HAYES YEAGER, M.A.
DEPEW PROFESSOR AND HEAD OF THE DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC SPEAKING
GEORGE WASHINGTON UNIVERSITY

AUTHORS OF "PRINCIPLES OF EFFECTIVE SPEAKING"
AND "SUCCESSFUL SPEAKING."

COMPILERS OF
"BUSINESS SPEECHES BY BUSINESS MEN"

McGRAW-HILL BOOK COMPANY, Inc.
NEW YORK AND LONDON
1929

COPYRIGHT, 1929, BY A. W. SHAW COMPANY
PRINTED IN THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

PREFACE

EFFECTIVE speaking pays dividends in business success. To utter one's ideas persuasively is to move others to action. He who is deficient in the selection, phrasing, and utterance of his thoughts fails to attain the influence and authority that might otherwise be his. Realizing this, many business men have sought assistance in the bettering of their speech, only to find that there are comparatively few books on the subject which are adapted to their needs. General treatises on public speaking do not treat specifically of the types of speech for which the business man is called upon, nor do they offer many hints concerning the most common of all business encounters, the personal conference. Consequently, the business man, or the student of business, finds them of little assistance.

This book has grown out of a realization of the need for specific training in the types of business address and in the personal conference. The authors have put into print the principles and suggestions which they have tested both by their own personal experience and in their own classes in Business and Professional Speaking. In addition they have drawn upon the experience of many men in industry, commerce, and the professions for a part of their illustrative material. The three parts of this work, Principles of Persuasive Speaking, Types of Business Talks, and The Personal Conference, are designed to meet the need for practical instruction in the speaking of everyday business life.

Acknowledgment to authors and publishers, for the use of material, has been made in footnotes throughout the work. In addition we are indebted to R. R. Rau, Secretary, National Retail Furniture Association, and to Glenn F. Eby, District Sales Manager, Johns Manville, Incorporated, for helpful suggestions.

W. P. SANDFORD
W. H. YEAGER

Urbana, Illinois, October 28, 1928

CONTENTS

PREFACE iii

PART I. PRINCIPLES OF PERSUASIVE SPEAKING

I

EFFECTIVE SPEECH IN BUSINESS 3

A great engineer's testimony. Speaking and individual success. Speaking problems in business. Opportunities in public address. Personal qualities developed by speech. Clear thinking. Enthusiasm. Self-confidence. Tact. Speaking and the business organization. Internal efficiency. Sales relations. Public relations. Associations. Training for business speaking. The need of instruction. What training should include. Principles of persuasion. Types of business speeches. The personal conference.

II

ANALYZING THE HEARER—GENERAL CONSIDERATIONS 15

Influence of age. Young people. Old people. Middle-aged. Mixed audiences. Influence of intelligence. Artistic intelligence. Verbal intelligence. Mechanical intelligence. Social intelligence. Hearers of high intelligence. Hearers of low intelligence. Hearers of average intelligence. Influence of groups. The family. Sectional groups. Community groups. Religious groups. Political groups. Economic groups. Social groups. Influence of hearer's known opinions. Opinions about the speaker. Opinions about the subject. Opinions about the occasion. Influence of hearer's activity level. Is the hearer quick to adopt new ideas? Influence of external speech conditions.

III

ANALYZING THE HEARER—HIS WANTS AND INTERESTS 33

Attention. Interest. Interest and the use of authority. What interests people. Our wants or desires. To be healthy. To acquire property. To have power. To have a good reputation. To have friends. To avoid fear. To love and protect others. To imitate or to differ from others. To have recreation. To satisfy tastes. The use of these wants. Primary and secondary wants. Compelling attention to wants. The vital. The familiar. Primary, secondary, and momentary interests. Making the familiar vivid. The striking. The concrete.

IV

SPECIAL SPEECH DEVICES—SUGGESTION AND IMAGERY..... 51

Definition of suggestion. Relation of suggestion to reason. Personality and suggestion. Influence of the speaker's age. Influence of intelligence. Influence of appearance. Influence of speech. Influence of authority. Influence of prestige. Influence of the hearer's known opinions about the speaker. Speech conditions and suggestion. Audiences. Personal conferences. Using direct suggestion. The familiar. Yes-response technique. Hopes and aspirations. Imagery. The need of imagery in speech composition. Visual. Auditory. Motor. Tactile. Thermic. Olfactory. Gustatory. The use of images.

V

ORGANIZING A TALK..... 65

The need of a plan. The layout of a talk. Preliminary layout. The completed layout. Developing the speech plan. The objective—the specific purpose. Stating the purpose. Limiting the purpose. The main ideas. The main ideas must appeal. The main ideas should be few. The order of main ideas. Speech details. Specific cases. Comparisons. Statistics. Expert opinion. Reiteration. Attention-getting introductions. Forceful conclusions. Outlining the speech.

VI

EFFECTIVE ORAL PRESENTATION..... 82

Giving ideas acceptance value. Fundamentals come first. Sense of communication. How to become communicative. Sincerity. Animation. Importance of health. Platform and interview conduct. Observations of conventions. Good appearance essential. Greeting the hearer. Bearing during the talk. Undesirable mannerisms. Adaptation to hearer. Carrying the hearer along. Concluding the speech. Developing pleasing utterance. Improvement practicable. Breathing a great vocal secret. Clear word-formation. Pronunciation. Preparing speeches for presentation. The extempore method. Extempore method in conference.

VII

FINDING MATERIAL 99

Need of business facts. Sources of material. Personal knowledge. Observation. Experimentation. Interviews and letters. Reading. Using a library. General guides and indexes. The card catalogue. Reader's guide. Public affairs information service. Industrial arts index. Five hundred business books. 1,600 business books. 2,400 business books. 2,600 business books. Reference books. General encyclopedias. Dictionaries. Atlases and maps. General yearbooks. Special business yearbooks. Biographical material. Periodical literature. General periodicals. Special business periodicals. Special publications. Associations. Corporations. Government reports and documents.

PART II. TYPES OF BUSINESS TALKS

VIII

INSTRUCTIONS AND EXPLANATIONS 125

The value of clearness. General characteristics. Definiteness. Adaptation to hearer. Planning the talk. Specific purpose. Main ideas. Speech details. Introduction and conclusion. Manner of presentation. Faults to avoid. An example of explanation.

IX

THE ORAL REPORT 140

The importance of reports. Definition and types of reports. Differences from explanations. Variety of types. General characteristics. Clearness. Concreteness. Completeness. Preparing a report. Defining and investigating the problem. The specific purpose. The main ideas. Speech details. Use of charts. Models and demonstrations. Printed and mimeographed material. Introduction. Conclusion. Manner of presentation. Typical oral reports.

X

THE SALES OR PROMOTIONAL TALK 161

Purpose of this chapter. Definition. Action the object. Planning sales or promotional talks. The specific purpose. Choosing the ideas. Developing the ideas. Introduction. Conclusion. Presentation of a sales talk. A good promotional talk.

XI

THE INSPIRATIONAL SPEECH 174

The "Why" of inspirational speaking. The nature of inspirational speaking. Some recent inspirational subjects. Planning the inspirational speech. The framework of the speech. Sublimation. Confidence. Appeal to wants. Definite suggestions. Development of details. Oral presentation. An excellent inspirational speech.

XII

DISCUSSIONS OF POLICY 191

Argumentative speaking in business. The nature of discussion. Preparation of a discussion. The proposition. Finding the important points. History and origin. Definition of terms. Narrowing the question. Contrasting opposing arguments. Determining the main issues. Helps in analysis. Logical reasoning. Valid evidence. Organizing the talk. Meeting opposing arguments. Concluding amicably and persuasively. Classroom practice in discussion. An effective discussion.

XIII

GOOD-WILL SPEECHES 208

Opportunities offered. Planning good-will speeches. Give information. Things to avoid. Speak for the group. Speech structure. Oral presentation. President Fiske's speech.

XIV

SPEECHES OF COURTESY 222

Occasions for "Courtesy" speeches. Introduction and presentation. Like inspirational speaking. Controversy to be avoided. Do not be lengthy. What to say. Speeches of acceptance and acknowledgment.

XV

THE AFTER-DINNER SPEECH 227

Types of after-dinner speeches. General characteristics. Not a "serious" speech. Brevity. Planning the talk. Subject and purpose. Analyzing the subject. The familiar. The striking. Exaggeration. Feeling of superiority. Gentle raillery. Speech structure. Presentation. A good after-dinner speech.

XVI

RADIO AND TELEPHONE SPEAKING 235

No new principles involved. Hints on presentation. Preparing the speech. Interestingness. Vividness. Brevity. Telephone speaking. Distinctness of utterance. Pleasing vocal quality. Answering calls. Courtesy pays.

XVII

CONDUCTING A MEETING 242

Degree of formality. Duties of the chairman. Duties of the secretary. The order of business. For single assemblies. For permanent organizations. Rules of order. Discretion of chairman. Committee work.

PART III. THE PERSONAL CONFERENCE

XVIII

THE IMPORTANCE OF CONFERENCE SPEAKING 249

Definition. Preparation for conference speaking. The manner of speaking in conference. Speaking and writing. Methods of presenting material. The conferrer and the conferee. Types of business speech in conference. Instructions. Oral reports. Sales talks. Inspirational speaking. Discussions of policy. Good-will talks. Introduction, welcome, and acceptance talks. Telephone speaking.

XIX

APPLYING ANALYSIS TO CONFERENCES 257

The specific purpose. The conferrer's knowledge of the conferee. The kind of facts needed. Age. Intelligence. Groups. The hearer's opinions. Hearer's knowledge of the subject. Hearer's activity level. Is the hearer quick to adopt new ideas? The hearer's wants and interests. Compelling the hearer's attention to his wants. The speaker's control of external conditions. A plan for analysis. Analysis chart.

XX

PLANNING THE CONFERENCE 270

The conferrer. Instructions. Oral reports. Sales talks. Discussions of policy. Good-will talks. Courtesy talks. Using the sources of business facts. Organizing the talk. Securing the interview. The conferee.

XXI

THE CONFERRER'S CONDUCT OF THE CONFERENCE—GENERAL CONSIDERATIONS 277

Use of the pre-approach. The main conference. Greeting the conferee. Opening the conference. Securing effortless attention. Using his secondary and momentary interests. The use of questions. Observe your hearer. Using common ground or points of agreement. The conferrer's manner of speaking. Clear thinking. Self-confidence. Tact. Enthusiasm. The fundamental qualities of speech. Sense of communication. Sincerity. Animation. The use of the voice. The use of humor. Handling the discourteous conferee. Effective use of silence.

XXII

THE CONFERRER'S CONDUCT OF THE CONFERENCE—QUESTIONS AND OBJECTIONS 307

Causes of questions and objections. Types of questions. How to answer questions. Types of objections. The secret of meeting objections. Methods of meeting objections. Universal objections. Particular objections. Particular objections in informative talks. Particular objections in persuasive talks. Sales talks. Inspirational talks. Discussions of policy. Mastery of the subject and meeting objections. The conferrer's manner of speaking.

XXIII

THE CONFEREE'S RESPONSE 327

Two kinds of conferrers. Methods of preventing conferences. The conferee's greeting. The conferee's response to presentation. Effect of questions. Effect of objections. The persistent conferrer. How to say "No."

XXIV

CLOSING THE CONFERENCE 337

Good terminal facilities are necessary. Conferences may end in three ways. The secret of successful closing. Do not be afraid to close. Observe the conferee. The trial close. The final close. The direct method. The indirect method. Avoid a final "No." Introduce new points. Postpone decision. Later interviews. Use of literature. Suggestion in the close. Use of summary in the final close.

XXV

A CONFERENCE ANALYZED 352

Memorandum of an interview between Harrington and Alderson. Analysis.

INDEX 367

BUSINESS AND PROFESSIONAL SPEAKING

PART I

PRINCIPLES OF PERSUASIVE SPEAKING

I

EFFECTIVE SPEECH IN BUSINESS

A great engineer's testimony. Speaking and individual success. Speaking problems in business. Opportunities in public address. Personal qualities developed by speech. Clear thinking. Enthusiasm. Self-confidence. Tact. Speaking and the business organization. Internal efficiency. Sales relations. Public relations. Associations. Training for business speaking. The need of instruction. What training should include. Principles of persuasion. Types of business speeches. The personal conference.

In recognition of his services to science, a distinguished engineer was recently presented a gold medal by the university from which he had been graduated. After the ceremonies, a reporter asked him what courses he would take were he to go to college again. His answer was, "Among other things, I should certainly take all of the courses in effective speaking that I could get." He went on to explain that the engineer of today is a business man; that he must meet and confer with business leaders; and that his success is aided or retarded by the quality of his speech. This is true not only in the profession of engineering. In every line of business, men are judged by what they say and by how they say it. Speech is the great agency through which men communicate with one another. Speech gives ideas concrete form and makes them acceptable to others. Sales are made, policies determined, positions secured, and difficulties adjusted through the medium of the spoken word. *As a tool of effective communication, speaking deserves the consideration of every individual and of every business concern.*

Speaking and individual success. The average individual in business utters, it has been estimated, about thirty thousand words a day in talking with others. Conversation, then, furnishes almost unlimited opportunity for impressing

one's ideas and personality upon his associates. Day by day, in routine matters and in discussions of unusual importance, the speech of the individual plays the largest part in convincing others of his worth. Well-chosen facts and ideas, persuasively stated and effectively uttered, reveal to hearers the clearness of intellect and force of personality possessed by the speaker. On the other hand, slipshod thinking, tactlessness, and careless utterance show themselves only too plainly. Effective speaking, therefore, should be the aim of everyone who hopes to succeed. The thirty thousand words a day which one utters are of far more importance than any amount of writing done by the average person.

Speaking problems in business. It is not only the routine conversation which presents a great opportunity to the man who is skilled in speaking. Every important situation in one's business career is, in part, a problem in effective talking. When the individual seeks a position, his speaking problem is one of presenting his qualifications in the most favorable light, in view of the needs and customs of the firm with which he is seeking employment. When he seeks to change a policy of the firm, his problem is to convince his superiors of the desirability of the proposed innovation. This requires skillful application of the principles of persuasive speaking. The salesman is confronted throughout his whole career with speaking problems. He must persuade customers to buy; he must adjust complaints; he must maintain good will for himself and for his firm. The executive, the factory manager, and the personnel director all have their speaking problems. No matter in what position one finds himself, he will discover that to attain the highest success, he must have the judgment, the tact, the clear thinking, and the effective utterance of the trained speaker. Effectiveness in business conversation is an important cause of success. Men in positions of responsibility usually have not only technical qualifications, but the ability to state facts and ideas with persuasive skill. The bunglers and the tactless are found in subordinate places.

Opportunities in public address. The person who is trained in oral discourse finds splendid opportunities to extend his influence through public speeches. Luncheon clubs, chambers of commerce, churches, and fraternal orders, to say nothing of political organizations, are seeking constantly for speakers who can instruct, persuade, and entertain. One who can take advantage of these opportunities enhances his standing and reputation. The world pays large rewards to the man who has mastered the art of oral communication. His mastery of speech is an asset to him in all of his relations with others.

PERSONAL QUALITIES DEVELOPED BY SPEECH

Training in effective speaking develops certain personal qualities which are of great importance for success. They are:

Clear thinking. To speak effectively, one must be master of his ideas. He must possess analytical ability, so that he may detect which ideas are important and which are unimportant. He must know how to arrange his facts and ideas in clear, logical order, and how to state them vividly. The good speaker is never muddled in his thought or expression. His statements blaze a mental trail which his hearers can follow. In a word, good speaking demands good thinking, and the right kind of speech training develops this quality to a high degree.

Tact. The person who watches the effect of his speech soon discovers that tact is a prime essential. The solution of difficult speaking problems demands, second only to clear thinking, a consideration of the hearer's point of view. The opinions, experiences, and prejudices of the listener must be taken into account in everything that is said. To disregard this, to blurt out the things that hurt and offend, is to court immediate disaster. The speaker thus learns the value of tact. As a result of his training, he finds himself better able to get along with his fellow men.

Enthusiasm. Indifference, sluggishness, lifelessness, and plain laziness must be avoided by the speaker. A vital part of his mental equipment is enthusiasm. Sincerity, alertness, and force go along with it. All of the life and verve that one can put into his speaking is necessary if it is to move others to belief and action. Without enthusiasm, the best-planned conversation or speech will fall short of success. Enthusiasm and sincerity are contagious. They carry the hearer with them. The trained speaker possesses, as a valuable asset in every department of his endeavor, the ability to generate enthusiasm.

Self-confidence. Good training and experience in speaking develop self-confidence. They give the speaker command of his thoughts, feelings, voice, and body while standing before an audience or engaging in conversation. The poise thus developed is of great value in every effort made by the individual. Diffidence, the fear of superiors, the inability to contemplate difficult tasks and interviews, are overcome. The self-confidence developed by training in speaking releases one's powers for their most efficient use.

In view of the importance of effective speaking in solving the individual's problems, and in view of the four personal qualities which training in this art develops, it is not exaggeration to say that speech training is training for leadership.

SPEAKING AND THE BUSINESS ORGANIZATION

Not alone to the individual is good speaking important. Leading business concerns have deemed it profitable to invest their funds in the training of their executives for better speech. One famous corporation has engaged, *thirteen times,* the services of a well-known lecturer on this subject, in order that those responsible for the conduct of its affairs may be qualified to express their ideas clearly and forcefully. Many corporations have included, as a vital part of their educational work among subordinates, courses in speaking. Facts such as these are evidence that the business world of

today realizes the necessity of effective oral communication.

Internal efficiency. The internal efficiency of a business demands clear and action-getting speaking. Instructions and orders must be given in a way that permits no misunderstanding, or waste and delay will result. Persons within the organization must be able to investigate major and minor problems and to report orally the results of their researches. If instructions, orders, and reports lack clearness, they will fail. Even when these are made in written form, they are usually supplemented by oral comments, which must be clear and concise. Speech efficiency in these routine matters saves many dollars to the concern.

Every executive has the responsibility of stimulating, encouraging, and at times reprimanding his subordinates. The tact and skill which he brings to these difficult tasks promote harmony and cooperation among his workers. Private inspirational and admonitory talking of this kind demands the most expert use of the principles of persuasion.

For coordination between departments, the conference is the accepted method. Here all of the elements of effective speaking come into play, and the executives who are well trained in discussion secure quick and satisfactory results. Conferences call for every possible type of speaking, from the oral report to arguments on questions of policy.

Sales relations. To a large extent, the success of any enterprise depends upon the sales department. Retail merchandising cannot succeed without a well-trained sales force, efficient in dealing with customers. The manufacturer must be able to market his product. This requires the services of salesmen who are trained to talk effectively. The salesman must know how to secure an interview, how to arouse the interest of the prospect, and how to close the sale. No function of modern business depends more directly upon the spoken word than that of selling.

Public relations. Last year, in Illinois alone, one group of public utility corporations presented over 1,800 speeches in connection with public relations work. Companies such

as these have come to realize, during the last few years, the importance of obtaining the good will of the people at large. They use great quantities of printed matter, in the shape of advertisements and personal correspondence, but in addition to this they have found that direct, personal contact with groups of people is essential. "Speakers' Handbooks," containing model talks and suggestions for composing speeches, have been issued by some such corporations. They are doing all in their power to increase the effectiveness of the "good-will speeches" which their representatives are giving.

Associations. Another important development in the business world, again emphasizing the importance of effective speaking, has been the growth of national associations in almost every line of endeavor. Such groups as the National Association of Mutual Insurance Companies, the National Retail Furniture Association, the National Electric Heating and Lighting Association, the American Institute of Banking, the American Boiler Manufacturers' Association, and the American Drug Manufacturers' Association are but typical of the organizations which are uniting individual concerns for the consideration of business problems. Periodical conventions are held, in which speeches dealing with many important subjects are presented. Meetings of this kind, and the annual meetings of large individual corporations, furnish many opportunities for good speaking. All types of speaking are in demand: oral reports, instructions and explanations, sales and promotional talks, talks on matters of policy, and inspirational talks. The social side of such meetings affords opportunity for after-dinner speaking and for speeches of introduction, welcome, and acceptance.

TRAINING FOR BUSINESS SPEAKING

The need of instruction. To take advantage of the opportunities for effective speaking, one must usually have acquired proficiency through instruction and practice. Skill does not come naturally to most people. Just as the person

who has a natural aptitude for mathematics must go through a period of training before he can qualify as a certified public accountant, so he who would become effective in speech must learn the technique of the art. Business and professional men generally are inclined to overlook this fact. Speech is so common that it is not prized highly enough by the average individual. It is too often regarded as a natural gift, something which, if present, does not need to be cultivated. On the other hand, there are many who do not realize that efficiency in speech may be analyzed, and its contributing factors developed by intelligent training. As a result, when the average executive or teacher of commerce is asked whether speaking is important, he will answer "Yes" without hesitation, but when he is asked whether he is doing anything in particular to increase his own efficiency, or that of his subordinates or students, the answer will almost invariably be, "Nothing." It is to remedy this situation, and to meet the demand for systematic instruction in business speech, that this work has been written.

What training should include. Training for effective speaking in business should provide three things:

1. Knowledge of the principles of persuasive speaking.
2. Practice in the application of these principles in making the various types of business speeches.
3. Special knowledge and practice in the technique of personal conference.

In this chapter, the importance of each of these three elements of training will be explained, and the procedure in each case will be outlined. Thus the individual who is seeking to improve his own speaking, or the student who is using this as a textbook, will be able to trace the process by which he is to acquire proficiency.

Principles of persuasion. Persuasive speaking rests upon three main elements, which are (1) mastery of facts and ideas; (2) skill in the statement of facts and ideas, and in their arrangement; and (3) effective oral presentation. These elements must be present in conversation, if the talker

is to be successful, in as complete a degree as in formal public speaking. To illustrate: a salesman who is superficially trained is asked a technical question concerning the employers' liability insurance he is attempting to sell. He is unable to give a clear and definite answer because he is not in full command of his facts. He fails. Another salesman for the same type of insurance has full knowledge of his facts, but he fails in his selection of facts and ideas. He bores his prospect by advancing many detailed arguments concerning the desirability of employers' liability insurance, when, had he intelligently analyzed his hearer, he would have found that conviction on this point is already present, and that what he should stress is the special features of his particular policy. His ideas are not clearly stated; his talk as a whole is muddled. He tactlessly says something which jars on the hearer's nerves. He fails, because of lack of skill in the selection, statement, and arrangement of his facts. Still another salesman is well qualified in the first two respects, but he is diffident, nervous, ill at ease. His manner is awkward and unprepossessing. His words are slurred and indistinct, his utterance without force. He, too, fails. They all fail, because each is deficient in just one of the three elements of persuasive speaking. Effective talking requires threefold proficiency. "Something to say" is not enough; skill in selection of facts and ideas is not enough; skill in oral presentation is not enough. All three must be present if the highest success is to be attained. There is no trick of the trade, no mysterious recipe, no "open sesame," and instructors who claim to possess some closely guarded secret which will make one an effective speaker overnight should be viewed with suspicion. The only method of becoming a good speaker is to attain, through study and practice, proficiency in each of the three elements which have been mentioned.

Part I of this work is devoted to the general principles of persuasive speaking. Chapter II deals with the speaker's analysis of his hearer or audience and points out what fac-

tors must be considered in adapting ideas to the listener. The want-appeal and elements of interestingness are presented in Chapter III. Chapter IV discusses the means of making the speech vivid, and Chapter V the methods of speech organization. Chapter VI discusses effective oral presentation. Chapter VII explains the sources of material. Taken together, the chapters of Part One lay the foundation for persuasive speaking. Everything treated in this part applies with equal force to the individual conversation and to the public speech, but the student of business speaking should make a special effort to apply the principles discussed to his everyday business conversations.

Types of business speeches. Although knowledge of the principles of persuasion forms the basis of proficiency, it alone is not enough to insure the highest degree of success in the conversations, conferences, and speeches of business life. Specialized training is desirable to enable the speaker to make the various types of talks for which he is likely to be called upon. Each of these types raises a distinct problem.

When an executive gives instructions and orders, his purpose is to secure action. But it is not merely action of any kind that he wants; it is action of the precise sort which he has in mind. Consequently he must be able to state his desires so coherently and clearly that they make an unmistakable impression upon the subordinate to whom he is talking. His problem, then, is to be clear. He must master the technique of explanation.

In rendering an oral report, formal or informal, an employee has the problem of clearness. The facts and figures which he has to present will be useless if he does not make them stand out sharp and distinct in the mind of the hearer. He must often make use of charts and diagrams to aid his explanation, and in doing this he must know how to interpret them orally for the benefit of the person or persons to whom he is reporting. He must know how to arrange his entire talk so that it proceeds logically and clearly to the desired conclusion.

Inspirational speaking, whether to an individual or to a group, requires the keenest analysis of the hearer's state of mind and the most tactful selection of facts and ideas which will encourage him. The problem of studying the other man's point of view is thus before the executive who wishes to be successful in inspiring others to greater effort and enthusiasm.

In sales talks, and in discussions on matters of policy, all the persuasive devices explained in Part One must be brought into play if the speaker is to gain his ends. Particularly important, again, is the study of the hearer, so that the speaker will say only those things which make the desired impression.

Speeches of introduction, welcome, and acceptance demand of the speaker ability to sense what is appropriate and fitting in the circumstances, and to avoid saying that which is trite and commonplace.

After-dinner speaking involves the problem of using "the lighter touch" without becoming utterly trivial. Many speakers who are competent in other ways succeed only in boring or antagonizing their hearers when they attempt to make a purely entertaining speech.

Telephone conversation deserves special attention because of its frequency. It presents difficulties both in the choice and wording of ideas and in the manner of utterance.

Radio speaking, which is becoming an important adjunct of conventions and banquets, and which assumes a place of prominence in public relations work, demands condensation, vividness, and excellent oral presentation.

In short, each of the common types of business speaking is a specialized problem. Each should be studied separately, and a working method developed. Part II of this work is devoted to specific directions for the preparation and presentation of each of the kinds of talks mentioned above. By following these directions, the speaker will most rapidly attain efficiency.

The personal conference. Partaking of the character of

all of the common types of speaking is the personal conference. Most of the important affairs of business are discussed and settled in interviews which include from two to ten or more individuals. It is what is said in these meetings, rather than what is given out later as official pronouncements, that is most influential in determining all matters of business policy. Consequently, the individual who would gain advancement must be able to hold his own at all stages of a conference.

To some extent, the study of types of business speaking is a preparation for conference, but it does not complete the training which is necessary. Conferences demand greater adaptability on the part of the speaker than any other form of talking. Unexpected situations may arise with which he must cope. He must be able to meet new points of view, to deal tactfully with objections, and to overcome inertia. He must know how to begin and how to end. Because of the vital importance of conference procedure, Part Three is entirely devoted to that problem. The preliminary study of the situation, the arrangements for the interview, the opening, the discussion, the methods of dealing with objections, and finally, the methods of closing, are discussed in detail. At every step, suggestions are made which, if followed, will develop effectiveness. These suggestions include both *what to say* and *how to say it*. It is believed that this part of the work contains more concrete information on conference technique than has heretofore appeared in print.

The value of systematic practice. Too much emphasis cannot be laid upon the fact that the suggestions and principles contained in the following chapters should be put into practice at every opportunity. The study of a book on effective speaking, or a formal course of training, can aid the individual but little if he neglects to apply what he has learned. Daily conversation furnishes the best training ground for speech proficiency. All the principles to be discussed here are capable of being put into operation at once in ordinary business and social conversation. Persistent

application of them will increase the effectiveness with which the individual deals with others. At the same time, they will build up his general speech proficiency. Through practice, he will reap the rewards for saying "the right thing, at the right time, in the right way."

II

ANALYZING THE HEARER—GENERAL CONSIDERATIONS

Influence of age. Young people. Old people. Middle-aged. Mixed audiences. Influence of intelligence. Artistic intelligence. Verbal intelligence. Mechanical intelligence. Social intelligence. Hearers of high intelligence. Hearers of low intelligence. Hearers of average intelligence. Influence of groups. The family. Sectional groups. Community groups. Religious groups. Political groups. Economic groups. Social groups. Influence of hearer's known opinions. Opinions about the speaker. Opinions about the subject. Opinions about the occasion. Influence of hearer's activity level. Is the hearer quick to adopt new ideas? Influence of external speech conditions.

THE writer once had a very serious illness. He consulted a doctor, who gave him a very hurried examination, guessed at the cause of the trouble, and prescribed a remedy, with the suggestion that a second examination would be desirable the next day. On the following day he discovered that the first diagnosis was wrong and that a vital organ was functioning only partially. Later examination by seven other physicians and surgeons failed to reveal the cause, when a young doctor, a hospital interne, discovered what was probably the correct explanation.

Just as the doctor's skill is practically useless until he correctly diagnoses the patient's ills, so the speaker's skill is worthless until he correctly analyzes his hearer's problems, wants, and interests. In addition, he must know the hearer's age, intelligence, conduct at different activity levels, how he is influenced by the religious, social, political, economic, family, sectional, and community groups to which he belongs, whether he is slow or quick to adopt new ideas, his opinions about the speaker, the subject, and the occasion, and finally how to control the external conditions of the speech. Only when the speaker has this information can he hope to adapt his ideas to his speech problem.

Many business and professional men keep card records of all the men with whom they have had, or expect to have dealings. Whenever any information of value, in influencing their conduct, is found, it is recorded and preserved for future use. In this way the speaker is enabled to solve his problems more satisfactorily when they present themselves.

Most business organizations have similar lists of their employees for the use of their principal executives. This is especially true of many of the promising men, whose careers are being watched for signs which tend to indicate an ability to fill a more important position.

Know your hearer, for it is only when you know his interests, abilities, opinions, prejudices, and wants that you can make your speaking effective.

INFLUENCE OF AGE

That there are very noticeable differences between persons with a marked difference in age has long been recognized. The differences which concern us, as students of the speech process, are not primarily those of a physiological nature, but are concerned with the growth and development of mental habits and capabilities. Our chief interest is with the differences of fixed habits of response in thought and action. Young people differ from old people in their thought habits as well as in the action resulting from motive appeal. All of us go through relatively the same stages at relatively the same ages.

These changes in thought and action may frequently be observed in any one individual from year to year and in some cases from month to month. Let us take the three principal age groups, the young, the old, and the middle-aged, and make note of the differences as they affect the speech process. It must, of course, be remembered that it is impossible to draw a line through the life history of any one individual and say that on one side there are certain habits and characteristics and on the other those that are entirely different. We

cannot say, for instance, that at the age of 30 we put aside all of the thought habits of the young and assume those of the middle-aged. To make such an assumption is to give our problem in analysis a simplicity which, in fact, does not exist. Everyone knows that, between these three principal groups, there is much overlapping of thought habits. Each individual audience or hearer must be analyzed to discover the differences in thought and action, as they are influenced by age, before his speech can be made effective.

Young people. The first important difference to be noted is that young people lack an extensive body of critical information. Through lack of extensive experience and training their thought habits are, of course, restricted. In making a new subject familiar to them the speaker must bring it within the range of their small body of knowledge. In using the same subject before older people the speaker is not limited to such a narrow range for his illustrative material but can draw on a much wider knowledge and experience.

For example, when a speaker is talking to an audience of young people on the modern use of Joule's law in the electrical industry he has a much narrower range of choice in selecting his illustrative material than when discussing the same subject before older and better informed people. He would state the fundamental principle of the law; that if a current passes through any conductor it heats that conductor, the amount of heat being proportional to the resistance of the conductor and the square of the current. He could then make his subject clear by showing that this law of electricity is used in the electric lamp, in the electric radiant heater, in the toaster, the electric percolator, the laundry iron, and in other similar contrivances, coming within the limited experience of the young. If talking to older people, such as a group of civil engineers, he could draw on a much wider knowledge and experience by showing how the principle is used in the electric furnace for the manufacture of steel and carborundum; how its accurately controlled heat is used for the manufacture of the best kinds of pottery.

Secondly, young people are more suggestible than older people. This principle follows from the fact that they lack an extensive body of critical information. The suggestibility of the young is largely important from the point of view of persuasive speaking. Young people accept many things that older people at once reject, solely because they lack the information with which to test the statements made to them. The credulity of young people has long been recognized. Children will believe almost anything told them by an older person whom they respect. Thus they accept the religious and political beliefs of their parents uncritically. They accept the thought habits of their economic and social classes without having inhibitory ideas.

In talking to young people, therefore, it is not so necessary to give our ideas a solid foundation in fact and logical reasoning. Most of what they are told will be accepted without critical analysis. This fact is both advantageous and dangerous. It is useful because it presents an easy road to the child's mind. It is dangerous because it may be used to inculcate obvious untruths and half truths. When untruths are accepted in this formative period of a person's life, it frequently takes years to change them, and sometimes they are never changed. Youth is the danger period in the development of our thought habits because what we learn and accept as true then seems to have a greater degree of resistance to inhibitory ideas than what we learn during middle age and old age.

The third characteristic of the young is a greater willingness to experiment—to try something new. The young man, just out of high school or college, is usually very willing to try out different kinds of employment to find the one best suited to his interests and abilities. A middle-aged man is, on the whole, less willing to change his employment even though he recognizes that he is misplaced. Every factory manager, employing both young and old people, knows how difficult it is to get the older people to change to a new method of doing something they have been doing every day

for years. On the other hand, it is fairly easy to get young people to try out almost any new idea. Accountants often tell of the difficulty they experience in installing new bookkeeping systems in offices where the employees are middle-aged or old. Young people are interested in new and novel ideas.

Finally, the interests and wants of young people differ from those of people in the middle-aged and old groups. This difference in interests and wants has a very important relation to the making of motive appeals.[1]

Old people. In general, the mental habits of the old are characterized by being opposite to those of youth. This fact has already been brought out in our discussion of the young. Old people have a far more extensive body of knowledge and experience, and a speaker in talking to them may make use of far more varied illustrative material. Since they have wider knowledge and experience, they are not as suggestible. They can more effectively test the statements made to them. They are far less willing to try out new ideas than young people. They tend to resist change, especially radical change. Novel and radical ideas are rejected. This fact, in each generation, is the basis of most of the criticism old people make of the young.

Middle-aged. The great group between the young and the old possesses the mental characteristics of both. People in this group possess more critical information than young people but not as much as old people. They are less suggestible than the young but more suggestible than the old. They will not try a new idea as quickly as the young but more quickly than the old. In this group it is necessary to give the most careful thought to each audience or individual to determine whether the tendency is to lean more toward the thought habits of the old or toward those of the young.

Mixed audiences. It is very frequently necessary in business and professional speaking to talk to groups composed of all three age groups. This problem is especially difficult

[1] See Chapter III.

when the very young and the very old are together. It is a perplexing problem of the lecture platform. To interest the whole audience should be the speaker's goal, but with mixed audiences it is almost impossible to attain that ideal because when interesting one age group the speaker is almost certain to bore the other. The problem is also present in church services. Many ministers have attempted to solve it by preaching a short, brief sermon to the children first, and then excusing them before the regular sermon begins. Whenever the speaker can exert some control over the age group to which he is to speak, he should limit his audience to one group. By doing this he can adapt his ideas to that age group and not run the risk of having a large section of his audience uninterested and inattentive.

INFLUENCE OF INTELLIGENCE

Intelligence has been defined by Professor F. H. Allport[2] as the capacity for solving the problems of life. It is the ability to learn and to profit by what is learned. According to Allport, intelligence is determined by problem-solving ability, memory and learning ability, perceptual ability, degree of constructive imagination, special abilities as speech, artistic and mechanical, soundness of judgment and general adaptability, which includes adjustment to the social group, its laws and its people. These factors of general intelligence are even more valuable to effective speakers when understood in relation to certain definite types of intelligence. These types are, *artistic* or *esthetic, verbal, mechanical,* and *social.*[3] When we speak of audiences or individuals of high, average, or low intelligence we should speak of them in reference to these types. Individuals vary in these types of intelligence. Very few people possess high intelligence of all types. Most people having high intelligence in one or two types have average or low intelligence in the others.

[2] *Social Psychology,* p. 104.
[3] A. J. Snow, *Psychology in Personal Selling* (A. W. Shaw Company, Chicago), p. 232.

Artistic or esthetic intelligence. This form of intelligence is possessed by many great writers, painters, and musicians. It is the intelligence which enables one to perceive the beautiful.

Verbal intelligence. This is the type usually tested in psychology. It is the intelligence we use in our thought processes. It enables us to evaluate facts and opinions and to draw our conclusions.

Mechanical intelligence. This is the intelligence of those who deal in concrete things and not in abstractions. It is the intelligence of the engineer, the chemist, the mechanic.

Social intelligence. Persons having high social intelligence are enabled by it to get along well with people. This is, in part, the intelligence of the successful speaker, preacher, statesman, lawyer, politician, and the salesman.

As has been noted above in discussing intelligence, we should think of it in terms of these types. Particular kinds of work require special kinds of intelligence and, conversely, people whose primary interest is in certain kinds of work have the intelligence required for that work more highly developed than the other types. When dealing with a chemical problem it is much easier to secure understanding if your hearers have high mechanical intelligence. The chief engineer of an industrial organization presumably has very high mechanical intelligence, while the foreman, although his mechanical intelligence may be his strongest forte, usually has a much lower degree of mechanical intelligence than the chief engineer. The salesman, selling new manufacturing equipment usually, therefore, finds a keener appreciation of the advantages of his equipment in the chief engineer rather than in the foreman.

Sales managers and personnel directors usually have a social intelligence which is more highly developed than the other types because their work calls for a highly developed social intelligence.

The speaker's problem is to determine, first, what type of intelligence predominates in his audience or hearer and then

he should know whether this intelligence is high, average, or low. This is of the highest importance in planning for any speech situation. Study your hearers and adapt your presentation to the type and the degree of intelligence you find there.

Hearers of high intelligence. When we speak of a hearer of high intelligence we mean that he possesses a wide variety of information in the particular work for which his type of intelligence is adapted. We mean that he has an unusual problem-solving ability, memory and learning ability, and constructive imagination. People of high intelligence think more quickly, clearly, and accurately than people of low intelligence. They are apt to be opinionated and positive in their statements when talking about subjects which are concerned with their type of intelligence. They have a large stock of information with which to test the statements made to them and are less suggestible than persons possessing low intelligence of the same type. It must be remembered that this applies particularly to the type of intelligence which predominates. In other types of intelligence he may be very suggestible. People of high intelligence understand quickly, and the speaker may introduce more ideas within the time limit of the talk.

Hearers of low intelligence. People having low intelligence of any type lack an extensive body of critical information, and their problem-solving ability, memory and learning ability, and power of constructive imagination is poor. They have difficulty in reasoning things out and arriving at correct decisions. When dealing with people of low intelligence much can be done to stimulate them to develop their abilities by appealing to their wants. When the desire for more knowledge and greater skill is awakened, the speaker's problem is largely solved. The problem of influencing people of low intelligence is much the same as the problem of influencing the young. They are credulous and may be moved by the use of suggestion. Appeals to wants and emotions are more successful than appeals to reason.

Hearers of average intelligence. The problem with hearers of average intelligence, for any type, is much the same as the problem in talking to the middle-aged. There is much overlapping of both high and low intelligence characteristics. Theirs is an average problem-solving ability, average memory and learning ability, average degree of constructive imagination, and average adaptability. The speaker must adapt his presentation to this average ability.

INFLUENCE OF GROUPS

The various groups to which an individual belongs exert tremendous influence on him, in all his activities. Every group develops certain more or less fixed thought habits. Prejudices are easily developed which carry over into activities outside of the group. These common groups with which we are all familiar are *family, sectional, community, religious, political, economic,* and *social.*

The family. The family lives in the closest association. The habits of this group, like those of all the other groups, tend to become the habits of each individual member of the group. The family as a group may possess unusual artistic intelligence, and each individual tends to develop intelligence of the same kind. The same thing is true of any other type of intelligence that may predominate in the family. The thought habits of the family as a group also tend to be carried over into the families of the children. Particular types of intelligence often lead to the development of certain prejudices peculiar to it. The architect's family may develop a prejudice in favor of a particular type of architecture. The speaker should know the characteristics of the home and family life of his hearer.

Sectional groups. Residents of different sections of the country develop somewhat different thought habits. Thus we speak of New England habits as varying from those of the West and of the South. Each section has a certain pride in its political and industrial development, its institutions and

public men. Sectional prejudices are thus developed which have a direct bearing on successful speaking. Nowhere is this fact more plainly indicated than in the national conventions and campaigns of our great political parties.

Community groups. Rural groups are characterized by differences of thought habits from those of urban groups. The only important difference, often observed in college classes containing students from both, is in the degree of social intelligence. People in rural communities, having fewer contacts with other people, seem to develop a lower social intelligence. The thought habits of rural and urban groups are largely determined by the environment of the particular group.

Religious groups. Religious groups tend to develop thought habits peculiar to them. Differences of doctrinal beliefs and ritualistic practice lead to the formation of many prejudices which very frequently must be taken into consideration in the speech process. Many speakers seriously interfere with their chances for success by an unwitting statement.

Political groups. Political prejudices are almost as widespread as religious prejudices. A man may be a Republican or a Democrat without knowing exactly why, but be moved to wrath by a disparaging reference to his party. Political campaigns and elections stir up animosities which live for years afterward. The thought habits of the political group of the individual are quite often a conditioning factor of importance.

Economic groups. An audience of wealthy men is a much different audience than one of poor men. The economic status of the hearer or audience determines the plan of many talks. In selling, the wealthy man is a prospect for many things the poor man cannot buy. Each economic group builds up its own set of thought habits.

Social groups. Finally, we have to consider the social group to which your hearer belongs. Again we find a difference in thought habits which must be considered. The mem-

bers of each social group tend to develop the thought habits of that group. The social thinking of the wealthy is concerned with yachts, brilliant social functions, clubs, and the theater, while those of the poor man are concerned with those types of pleasure which are more suited to his economic status. A man's social thinking is in terms of his social environment.

INFLUENCE OF THE HEARER'S KNOWN OPINIONS

The hearer's opinions about the *speaker*, the *subject*, and the *occasion* must be considered carefully for successful speaking. It does not matter how those opinions may have been acquired. His opinions may be the result of a lack of information or of intelligence or they may be built on the prejudices of the various groups of which he is a member. However that may be, the speaker should know what those opinions are, if it is possible to discover them, before he begins to talk, so that if they constitute an adverse factor in the speech situation he may prepare to change them to favorable factors. When these adverse opinions are made known during the course of the talk itself, it is more difficult for the speaker to adjust his presentation; but such an adjustment must be made.

About the speaker. In general, the hearer may have any one of three possible opinions about the speaker. He may regard the speaker with favor; he may dislike him, or he may have a neutral opinion. There are some cases when it is not necessary for the hearer to like the speaker in order to get him to do what the speaker wishes, but these are in the minority. It happens only when the hearer discovers that he cannot afford to disregard the speaker's talk. The workman may have a pronounced dislike for the foreman, but he cannot afford to disregard the foreman's instructions. The business man may dislike the chamber of commerce secretary who solicits his membership, but he cannot afford, for business reasons, to stay out of the organization. Even in

cases of this kind, fuller cooperation will result when a personal liking exists between the two parties.

In the great majority of cases it is necessary for the speaker to have the respect and good will of his hearer. Failure to have or to secure this good will is frequently a bar to the speaker's efforts. It must be secured if the speaker is to attain the highest success. If the speaker is unable to obtain active good will, he at least must avoid antagonizing.

Ill will usually arises from some real or fancied injury done by the speaker or by those he may represent to the hearer, his friends, or acquaintances; from a disparaging remark made about any of the groups of which the hearer is a member; from personality traits, or because the hearer regards the speaker as a failure. If the cause is the first of these, the speaker should offer the proper explanations or apologies; he should prevent the second by avoiding all remarks to which the hearer might take offense; if the third is the cause, the speaker should try to bring his personality into a greater degree of harmony with that of the hearer; if the fourth is the cause, the speaker must strive to win respect by demonstrating his ability.

So important is this last cause of ill will that strong support of a proposition by a man who is regarded as a failure will drive some neutral and favorable opinion into opposition. On the other hand, when the speaker is known as a success his ideas almost always meet with less opposition; fewer doubts arise.

When the speaker is a stranger he must depend on the speech itself to build up the good will and the respect which he desires.. He must avoid all remarks which might tend to create opposition and must show by his treatment of the subject that he has a thorough knowledge of it and is competent to speak about it.

When the speaker is not a failure but is simply inexperienced, much the same problem exists, although in most cases it is not so difficult. He must win confidence by demonstrating that his proposals are the right ones to follow.

It is apparent that if the audience or hearer dislikes the speaker he has that additional bar to action to break down before he can hope to get a favorable response. On the other hand, if the audience has confidence in and a liking for the speaker, he has less difficulty accomplishing his purpose. The speaker should either have or create this submissive attitude before he can hope to achieve the highest standard of speech effectiveness.

About the subject. In addition to knowledge of the hearer's opinion of the speaker he should also know how the hearer regards the subject of the talk. The states of the hearer's opinion may be conveniently classified as *strongly favorable, slightly favorable, neutral, slightly opposed,* and *strongly opposed.* When the speaker knows that the hearer is strongly favorable to his proposal, his problem is not difficult. Usually he will have only to point out exactly what he wishes the hearer to do and tell him when to do it. His problem is to convert the strongly favorable opinion into action. This time should be, if possible, immediately following the speech. Experience shows that the longer the amount of time intervening between the time of the speech and the time assigned for the action, the fewer the chances of success. When the time for the action is postponed, inertia gets in its innings; doubts arise.

When the hearer is "lukewarm," that is, slightly favorable, no action can result until this slightly favorable opinion becomes a strongly favorable one. This may usually be done by making the proposal entirely clear and by pointing out the benefits which will accrue to the hearer. Make a direct appeal to the hearer's wants. Then when the strongly favorable opinion is formed, proceed as we have outlined for strongly favorable opinion. Tell him what to do and set a time for doing it.

When the hearer or audience is neutral, the speaker must form a strongly favorable opinion, usually by first forming a slightly favorable one. In many cases this may be done by pointing out the advantages to the business as a whole or in

general by an appeal to the so-called unselfish wants. The strongly favorable opinion may then be formed by proceeding in the way outlined.

When the hearer or audience is slightly or strongly opposed the speaker has his most difficult problem. When the hearer is slightly opposed, the speaker must first form a neutral attitude. This may usually be done by answering the more important objections to the proposal. These should be answered in a friendly, conciliatory manner and not as if the speaker were meeting a challenge. When the neutral opinion is formed, the speaker can then proceed as outlined above for neutral opinion.

When the speaker or audience is strongly opposed it is usually because the proposal seems to work a direct injury. The speaker must deal with this problem first. He must show how his proposal will not injure. If this cannot be done to the satisfaction of the hearer, the speaker has little or no chance of attaining the purpose of the speech. When the speaker shows that his proposal will not injure the hearer he usually carries him to a slightly opposed opinion, from which point the speaker may proceed as outlined for slightly opposed opinion.

Frequently both strong and slight opposition may be removed by a clear and complete explanation of the proposal. Opposition is often due to a lack of information.[4]

About the occasion. There is a proper time for doing everything from the point of view of the hearer. If the speaker insists on presenting his ideas at a time not regarded as proper by the hearer, he is erecting a bar to his success. Noonday luncheon clubs usually have the rule that business must not be solicited at their weekly meetings. When this rule is violated antagonism is aroused and it becomes, in most cases, more difficult for the same speaker to get a favorable hearing later. When the busy executive tells the salesman that he hasn't time to discuss his proposition today but that he will be glad to talk it over at 10 o'clock in the

[4] Sandford and Yeager, *Principles of Effective Speaking*, p. 53.

morning, to insist on an immediate discussion will harm the salesman's chances, unless he can show a cause which seems more important to the executive than the business which is engaging his attention.

INFLUENCE OF HEARER'S ACTIVITY LEVEL

Each individual has a normal level of activity, as well as two other levels which we will call excited and depressed.[5] These levels vary from person to person. The normal level for one person may be the excited or the depressed level for another. When we say that a person is at the excited level of his activity we mean that he is more energetic than usual or is moved by a strong emotion such as anger or fear. Such a person is easily irritated. When a person is in the depressed level of his activity we mean that he is sad, dejected, discouraged, or sullen. His movements are sluggish and his disposition irascible.

The activity level of the hearer or the audience at the time of the talk has a very direct bearing on its success. This fact is especially important in personal conferences. When an individual falls below or rises above his normal level of activity, he is usually a more difficult person to handle. Business men recognizing this problem refrain from calling on men in either their depressed or excited level of activity because they know that any variation from the individual's normal activity level operates as a bar to effective communication.

Sometimes it is not possible to know the activity level of the conferee before the conference. When this happens, the conferrer should either say something to bring the conferee back to his normal level of activity or courteously withdraw, without giving cause for offense, until such time as the hearer has returned to his normal level of activity. It must be remembered, too, that very often a change in activity level is caused by physiological upsets and that a return to a normal level may not occur until the person is well.

[5] Sandford and Yeager, *opus cit.*, p. 58.

Experience shows that the most satisfactory results may be achieved when each party to a conference is at his normal level of activity.

IS THE HEARER QUICK TO ADOPT NEW IDEAS?

As has already been noted, the question of whether or not the hearer is quick to adopt new ideas has a definite relation to his age. It also has definite relation to the influence of the groups of which the hearer is a member. This presents a problem which has a vital relation to the speech process. People of the highest intelligence are frequently so conservative in their thought habits that they balk at new ideas.

The president of a public utility company in one of our large cities was approached, some time ago, by a well-known lecturer on effective speaking in business, with the object of interesting him in having his course given for the executives of the organization. This was an entirely new idea to the president. He was not interested and did not see the importance of providing such training. He doubted the value of it. He said that they were getting along very well and did not need such a course.

Whenever the hearer is conservative and is doubtful about new ideas, the speaker usually must find some striking way of showing the need for his suggestions. Either that or some chance occurrence in the organization itself may provide the shock needed to secure favorable consideration. In the case just mentioned the latter happened. Two of the executives of the organization attended a meeting of citizens, called to discuss the relation of the public utility company to the community. At this meeting a demand was made that the company put its overhead lines underground in a certain section of the city. The two utility men sat in silence while the matter was being discussed. When a resolution, embodying the demand, had been adopted they hastened to report it to the president. Imagine that official's disgust when he found that they lacked the courage and the ability to stand

on their feet and defend the company's policy. The president immediately engaged the services of the lecturer not only for one course but for several, with most satisfying results.[6]

When to all appearances things are going well, the man with a new idea has his hardest problem with the conservative-minded individual. When defects are apparent to this type of individual, as in the above instance, he is more ready to give careful consideration to new proposals.

When the hearer is quick to adopt new ideas the speaker's task is simplified. A clear explanation of the proposal is usually all that is necessary. With the conservative-minded it must not only be clearly but also strikingly and persuasively stated.

INFLUENCE OF EXTERNAL SPEECH CONDITIONS

In both public and private speaking it is frequently possible for the speaker to exercise some control over the conditions under which he speaks. This is especially true of the public speech. Whatever the speech situation, the speaker should use his knowledge of effective speaking to make these conditions as favorable as they can be made. Two things should be considered: the hearer or audience should be comfortable and distractions should be eliminated.[7]

The business man who keeps his hearers standing, especially during a long talk, is not providing for their physical comfort. Another cause of discomfort is hard wooden chairs. Discomfort calls attention away from the ideas of the speech and constitutes an adverse factor. Discomfort also has a suggestive influence. It leads to fidgeting and calls the attention of others to their discomfort, away from the speaker's ideas.

Heat, poor ventilation, and bad lighting are also frequent causes of discomfort and distraction, and should be properly

[6] The lecturer referred to is Victor Alvin Ketcham, Professor and Head of the Division of Public Speaking in the Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio.

[7] Sandford and Yeager, *opus cit.*, p. 65; Armstrong and Eliot, "External Conditioning Factors in Public Behavior," *Social Forces*, June, 1927.

adjusted if the speaker is to have the interested attention of his hearers.

In personal conferences the speaker is often not able to eliminate all distractions. The conferee may be continually interrupted by other callers and telephone calls. These are very disturbing and make the speaker's task very difficult. Sometimes these distractions may be eliminated by holding the conference at a club or a hotel.

The thing to be remembered is that whenever the speaker can control the conditions of the talk he should make his hearer or audience comfortable and should eliminate all disturbing elements which tend to call attention away from the speaker's ideas.

SUMMARY

Just as the doctor cannot prescribe the proper remedy until he correctly diagnoses the patient's case, so the speaker cannot use his tools until he correctly analyzes his hearer or audience. He should know the age and intelligence of his hearer. He should know to what groups the hearer belongs and how he is influenced by those groups. He should know the hearer's opinions about the speaker, the subject, and the occasion. He should know the hearer's activity level at the time of the talk. He should know whether he is slow or quick to adopt new ideas, and finally he should, when possible, control the external conditions under which he has to talk and make them favorable. The hearer or audience must be comfortable and distractions must be eliminated for the highest speech effectiveness.

III

ANALYZING THE HEARER—HIS WANTS AND INTERESTS

Attention. Interest. Interest and the use of authority. What interests people. Our wants or desires. To be healthy. To acquire property. To have power. To have a good reputation. To have friends. To avoid fear. To love and protect others. To imitate or to differ from others. To have recreation. To satisfy tastes. The use of these wants. Primary and secondary wants. Compelling attention to wants. The vital. The familiar. The striking. The concrete. Primary, secondary, and momentary interests. Making the familiar vivid.

In the preceding chapter we have discussed the general things to be considered in analyzing the hearer. We must now think of him in terms of his wants and interests. Any talk must deal with the wants and interests of the hearer if it is to have his attention.

ATTENTION

"What we attend to controls our behavior. What we can get other people to attend to controls their behavior."[1] This is the key to all successful speaking. A speaker cannot expect to attain his purpose unless he is able to secure and hold the attention of his hearer or audience. The teacher has no chance of instilling useful information into the minds of his students unless he can get them to listen to his lectures. The engineer who cannot secure and hold the attention of the members of the board to his proposal is doomed to failure. The after-dinner speaker who cannot make his audience listen to what he has to say will not entertain.

To attend to a thing is not only to be aware of it but is to be keenly conscious of it. It is a focusing of all our perceptual faculties toward it. When we attend to a thing, a

[1] H. A. Overstreet, *Influencing Human Behavior*, p. 9.

state of immobility sets in and all our senses are alert to learn more about it.

An audience which is attending has but two desires; to see and to hear the speaker. They wish to see and to hear the speaker in order that they may learn what it is he is saying to them.

There are three types of attention, the *voluntary,* the *involuntary* and the *effortless.* Voluntary attention is the attention we give through the use of the will. Involuntary attention is the kind we give to loud noises such as a crying baby, to sudden movements, to flashes of light, and to other stimuli which, momentarily at least, catch our attention and hold it away from other things to which we have been attending. Effortless attention requires no effort of the will but is based upon and accompanied by interest.

Of these three kinds, effortless attention is the one in which we are chiefly interested as students of effective speaking in business relations. The speaker's aim is to make his ideas so interesting to his hearer or audience that attention follows naturally and without effort.

Attention fluctuates, that is, it jumps rapidly from point to point. Psychological experiments have demonstrated that the period of attention is, in most cases, not more than one second. This fact is very important to the speaker because it means that the hearer will not long attend to the same detail. The speaker must make his subject change by presenting ideas in rapid succession. The stimulus must be changed rapidly in order to hold attention.

INTEREST

As we have already mentioned, effortless attention requires no effort of the will but follows naturally from interest. How to interest the audience or the hearer is therefore the problem the speaker must solve for each speech situation. Each hearer and each audience presents a different problem requiring a varying treatment of the same subject to adapt it to the

special interests of that hearer or group. Attention and interest go hand in hand as far as effective speaking is concerned. We attend to what interests us and will not long attend to what is uninteresting. In this chapter we are concerned with how the speaker may adapt his presentation to meet the varying interests of his hearer.

INTEREST AND THE USE OF AUTHORITY

There are some speech situations when the speaker is able to command attention because of the authority he has over the hearer or the audience. The great danger to be guarded against when this relationship is present is the assumption of the attitude of attention even though interest is lacking. This makes it very difficult for the speaker to detect a lack of interest, for the audience is attending by an effort of the will. They hesitate to betray a lack of interest by restless movements and therefore give the appearance of attention. Obviously, this situation cannot lead to a successful termination of the talk and should be avoided. It should not be necessary for the audience to attend through an effort of the will. Ideas presented in an interesting manner will be remembered much longer than ideas acquired through forced attention. The speaker who has authority over his audience should be very careful to make his ideas interesting and thus command attention because of their quality.

WHAT INTERESTS PEOPLE

People are interested in their own health and well being, in their families and home communities. They are interested in acquiring property, power, and prestige. They are interested in people and in taking part in recreational activities with them. They are interested in the work which absorbs their energies and in a great many other activities of a secondary and momentary nature.

All human interests are based upon human wants. We are

interested in our daily work because we very much want the economic and social standing, the power and the prestige, which go with outstanding achievement in that work. We are interested in recreation because we have a fundamental need of play. In this way all human interests are based on wants or desires. In order to interest people, talk to them about their wants and desires. People are interested only in those things in which they want to be interested.

A list of any one individual's specific wants would include dozens of items. However, such a list is bewildering. In order to provide a basis for training in effective oral communication it is necessary to classify these specific wants under general wants. Thorough knowledge of the general wants of people provides the speaker with the tools he must use in dealing with any specific want.

OUR WANTS OR DESIRES

In satisfying all our wants we try to avoid the *unpleasant* and to promote the *pleasant*. The following list of general wants indicates this:

To be healthy
To acquire property
To have power
To have a good reputation
To have friends
To avoid fear
To love and protect others
To imitate or to differ from others
To have recreation
To satisfy our tastes[2]

To be hèalthy. On the degree in which any individual is able to satisfy this want depends the satisfaction of many of the other wants. For example, the avoidance of fear and the acquiring of property and power are to some extent dependent on a healthy mind and body. To this fundamental want

[2] A. E. Phillips, in *Effective Speaking*, classifies our wants as desires for self-preservation, property, power, reputation, affections, sentiments, and tastes.

are directed most of the appeals used in the marketing of food and drug products of all kinds. We want to be free from pain and physical discomfort. We want to be able to do our day's work efficiently. We do not wish to be called "an eighty percenter." In order to satisfy this want, we provide ourselves with food and shelter, with cool clothing in summer and warm clothing in winter, with fresh air and sunshine, with physical exercise, and with all of those many other things which make for physical and mental comfort.

When the speaker can show that his ideas are connected with the health of the members of his audience, he has provided a natural avenue for interest to travel to the attention which is so necessary for his success. Appeals to this want compel attention to the subject and provide powerful motives in accomplishing the purpose which the speaker desires to attain.

To acquire property. This want is back of most of the serious effort we give to our daily work. We want to increase our income. We desire property for the comfortable feeling of self-satisfaction which goes with ownership. When the salesman is shown that the application of new methods to his selling will increase his income, he will adopt those methods. If the production manager is convinced that new manufacturing equipment will effect economies in the operation of the factory and thus make more money for the organization, he will buy it. If the business man is convinced that investment in the common stock of a company will bring a large return, he will add his name to the list of stockholders. Show any man how you can increase his property and you will secure his attention.

To have power. Most normal people desire power. We do not want to be physical weaklings or dullards; we want to be strong and skilled. Educational courses of all kinds are largely marketed on the appeal to power. Prospects are told that the study of a certain course will make them more efficient and better able to climb to a position of wealth and influence. They are told that training will enable them to

rise above their fellows. All of us have the desire to increase our capacity for solving the problems of life; we all strive for a higher degree of intelligence in our life's work. The technical man wants a high mechanical intelligence, the artist a high esthetic intelligence, the scholar a high verbal intelligence, and the salesman a high social intelligence. To have power is thus intimately connected with the possession of knowledge.

To have a good reputation. A good reputation is a first-class business asset, and men will not knowingly do anything to mar it. They will rather seize opportunities for increasing the regard in which they are held. The appeal to reputation is a very important persuasive appeal.

To have friends. Everyone likes to have friends. We do a great many things for no other reason than to increase our circle of friends. Paul W. Ivey[8] tells an interesting story of a salesman's use of this want in selling him a living room suite. He was determined to pay no more than a definitely fixed price. When he went in, he informed the salesman of this price. The salesman showed him a suitable suite within the price limit and after Mr. Ivey had agreed to buy it said, "All right, sir, I am glad you have decided to take this set. It is a good one. Now that you have decided to take it, I just want to show you another set that we got in here a little while ago. I just want you to *look* at it, you understand." He then showed him a more expensive but at the same time a far more comfortable suite. After getting Mr. Ivey to sit down on the davenport he said, "You know how it is; friends call and we always like to have them comfortable. The time rolls around so quickly when some of our friends call; this davenport will make them hate to leave." The success of this appeal to the want, to have friends, is indicated by the fact that Mr. Ivey purchased the davenport.

To avoid fear. We are beset with fears of many kinds. We fear for the safety of our families, our property, our investments, our lives. In order to avoid fear and to substitute

[8] *Salesmanship Applied* (A. W. Shaw Company, Chicago), p. 147.

for it a feeling of safety, we do a great many things that we would not otherwise do. We attempt to provide our communities with efficient governments largely in order to make our lives and property safe. We carefully check our investments to make sure that the chances of loss are reduced to a minimum. We try to perform faithfully our daily work in order to avoid discharge and loss of salary, with all its distressing inconveniences. We buy sturdily built automobiles because of the large element of safety provided. We save our money to take care of ourselves and families in the later period of our lives, when earning power is reduced or entirely cut off. To avoid fear is a fundamental want.

To love and protect others. This want centers around the desire to love and protect our families, friends, and acquaintances. It is the foundation of the institution of marriage. It also has wider application to the community in which we live and the country. It was, for example, probably the most impelling of the wants which drove our manhood to enlist in our army and navy during the World War.

It is used by bond and investment houses to encourage people to save and invest in order that they may be able to provide necessities and comforts for their loved ones. It is the foundation of the appeal to buy life insurance. It is in part the appeal used in the sale of a host of other commodities and services. When a man is told that by doing a certain thing he will be better able to provide for and protect his loved ones, the basis has been laid for his effortless attention to your proposal.

To imitate or to differ from others. All of us know people we like to imitate and others from whom we like to differ. Every salesman knows the impelling power of the desire to imitate. The housewife is influenced in the purchase of a new electric iron by the fact that Mrs. Smith, across the street, has bought one. When one man in an organization buys an educational service his purchase is frequently the entering wedge for a whole series of sales. The desire to imitate others is very strong.

Whenever the speaker uses the motive of imitation he must be careful to refer to people whom the hearer admires and respects. If he refers to people who are not highly regarded or who are disliked, the want to differ from them usually acts as a bar to the successful conclusion of the talk.

To have recreation. Rest and play are recognized as necessary for the highest success. It is physically next to impossible to maintain the same level of efficiency permanently, without recreation. We must have breathing spells of relaxation. For some men an annual vacation is sufficient; for others the breaks in daily routine must come more often. We use these rest periods for play, games, sports, drama, and travel and we return to the work of our primary interest refreshed in mind and body.

To have recreation is a fundamental want and to show any man that a certain course of action will result in greater opportunity for his personal enjoyment of these pleasures secures his interested attention to your ideas.

To satisfy our tastes. This is the appeal of the beautiful. It is the appeal of poetry, painting, sculpture, music, and the drama. The appeal to tastes is very prominent in advertising and selling. Automobiles, to mention just one article, are in part sold on the appeal to the beautiful. Graceful lines, beautiful colors, artistic appointments, are all important factors in their sale.

THE USE OF THESE WANTS

These wants must be used to compel attention to the speaker's ideas and to move the hearer to action. They are more often used in groups rather than alone. The appeal to power is often coupled with the appeal to property; the appeal to tastes is often found with appeals to recreation and friends.

Individuals react differently to these appeals to wants. One man may be primarily influenced by the recreation, friends, tastes group; another by the health, fear, property,

power group. The speaker's analysis of the hearer should disclose the dominant set of urges or wants of that individual. Then the speaker can adapt his remarks to meet the interests of that group.

For most adults these wants are important in the order indicated. This is not true of children. Experiments have shown that reputation is the most impelling of the wants for children, followed by, to love others, to acquire property, to have power. Health and tastes rank very low with children. This is not surprising in regard to tastes but may be surprising to some in regard to health.

Primary and secondary wants. The same individual, at different times, reacts in a different way to appeals to these wants. The classification of them into primary and secondary is useful. At one particular period in a man's life he may feel the need of some particular thing more than others. A prominent advertising man in one of our large cities, for example, some time ago felt the need of training in public speaking to help him to take a fuller rôle in the business and professional life of his community. So great was this particular want that it crowded other wants into the background and he set to work to make himself proficient in speech. Salesmen who have just been through an unsuccessful period of work feel a great need of information to improve their methods of selling. Their dominant want, at such times, is power.

If the speaker can find out what the hearer wants more than anything else, at the time of the talk, and can show him how his ideas will satisfy that want, he is, in most cases, certain to succeed.

COMPELLING ATTENTION TO WANTS

Everyone has the fundamental wants we have discussed. He may be conscious of some of them but not of others. The speaker must very often make the hearer aware of his want. He does this by using what we call the elements of interest-

ingness. These are the *vital, the familiar, the striking,* and *the concrete.*[4]

The vital. The vital is concerned with subject matter and composition. It is the term we apply to every talk which makes use of the hearer's wants.

A banker who talks to the members of his bond department about the methods to be used in marketing a new issue is dealing with the vital interests of his audience. Their success in their work depends on their ability as salesmen and they will therefore listen with the greatest interest to suggestions which will improve their record. On the other hand, the man who talks to an audience of farmers about the process of making steel is not likely to arouse much interest for the reason that steel making is not vital to the hearer. A talk to farmers on governmental methods of relieving agricultural distress or on improving the farmer's marketing methods would be interesting because vital. Subjects dealing with the primary interests of an audience (see page 44) have the vital inherent in them. The lawyer is very much interested in all proposals to reform criminal procedure. The business man is vitally interested in everything affecting his business. Every man is a potential listener to any subject dealing with the work of his primary interest. Whether he is actually a good listener depends on how well the speaker makes the vital nature of his idea apparent. Even in a man's primary interest it sometimes happens that he must be made conscious of his want through good use of the vital, the familiar, the striking, and the concrete.

With primary interests the vital inheres in the subject itself, although the hearer may not be aware of it. In secondary and momentary interests (see pages 45-48) the vital does not inhere in the subject and must be made apparent through the composition of the talk. The speaker makes the vital apparent by showing how the subject affects the satisfaction of wants.

In the days of the open saloons it was not difficult to get

[4] Sandford and Yeager, *Principles of Effective Speaking,* pp. 70-114.

an audience of drys to make large contributions, to be used for the purpose of stamping out the liquor traffic, because the corner saloon was a daily reminder of its vital relation to the individual. Now the situation has changed. The saloon has disappeared and the vital relation of the individual dry to the liquor traffic is not so apparent. Contributions to the dry cause are now smaller and more infrequent. The dry speaker must make the vital nature of his subject apparent before he can secure funds.

When a new business comes to the community, the local body sponsoring it must make what will to most people be a secondary interest a primary and vital one. If the local business men are to provide the inducements necessary to bring the industry, they must be shown how they will profit. They must be shown that the industry will bring more desirable families to the community; that it will employ many hundreds of workers; that it will relieve unemployment; that it will increase the buying power of the whole community and result in more business for them. The secondary interest must be made vital, that is, it must for the moment become a primary interest if the project is to be carried through to a successful conclusion.

When the vital inheres in the subject, as in subjects dealing with primary interests, the task of the speaker is easier than when the vital does not inhere in the subject, as in subjects dealing with secondary and momentary interests.

The familiar. The second most important factor in compelling attention to wants is the familiar. Our vital messages must travel the avenue of the familiar if they are to enter the minds of our hearers. By the familiar we mean that our ideas must be brought within the experience of our hearers. When we use the familiar we speak objectively. We present our ideas in terms of the knowledge and the experience of the hearer.

Careful analysis of the hearer is the first requisite to the successful use of the familiar. Use all the suggestions of the preceding chapter to determine what the knowledge and

the experience of your hearer is. First, what is his age? How much may he be assumed to know and of what may he be safely assumed to be ignorant? Second, what type of intelligence predominates? Is he predominately esthetic, verbal, mechanical, or social in his thought processes? After having determined the type of intelligence, does he have high, average, or low intelligence of this type? Third, of what groups is he a member and how may the influence of these groups be used to change his conduct? Fourth, how do his opinions about the speaker, the subject, and the occasion affect the use of the familiar? Fifth, is he slow or quick to adopt new ideas? If slow, what vivid references to his experience will shock him into interested attention?

There are two general types of experiences; direct and indirect. A direct experience is one which is experienced by the senses of the body. To personally see, hear, feel, taste, and smell is to have a far more vivid experience than can be had indirectly. Indirect experiences are those acquired through reading or through the speech of others. If the general manager personally visits the site for a new factory, that is a direct experience. If, instead of going himself, he sends a representative, the representative's report becomes a part of his indirect experience.

In making use of the familiar there are three general types of interests which must be taken into consideration in making our messages vivid. These are *primary, secondary,* and *momentary.*[5]

Influence of primary interests. Primary interests, for most people, are those involved in the satisfaction of wants. The larger part of every day is spent in satisfying our desires for health, property, power, reputation, to love and protect others, to avoid fear, to have recreation, to imitate or to differ from others, to make friends, and to satisfy tastes. Primary interest, therefore, is intimately bound up with the work done to satisfy these wants.

A man's primary interest at any particular time in his

[5] Sandford and Yeager, *opus cit.,* pp. 61-65.

career may be selling, advertising, accounting, factory management, dentistry, medicine, law, ministry, teaching.

It is obvious that a man's primary interest plays a very important part in making ideas familiar to him. *He habitually thinks in terms of his primary interest, and any subject can best be made familiar to him by presenting it in the language of that primary interest.* An advertising man may be safely assumed to know considerable about advertising, and any subject presented in terms of this experience will strike home. The doctor in talking to an audience of lawyers should use the language of law. If he uses the language of medicine, he is not making the most of his opportunities. His message will misfire. *Study the primary interest of your hearer and make your message talk in terms of what you find there.*

Influence of secondary interests. Secondary interests are those of a religious, political, fraternal, cultural, and educational nature. Most of us have interest in activities of this kind and this interest, for most people, is not primary but secondary. The work we do to satisfy our wants comes first, and is primary, while interest in activities, like sports and the drama, comes second, and is secondary. It is true that a primary interest for one man may be a secondary interest for another and vice versa. Religion is the primary interest of the minister but the secondary interest of the ordinary church member. Sometimes, too, a man may have primary interest in two different sorts of activities, as teaching and authorship; the case with the authors of this book.

These secondary interests are also of the first importance in making your ideas familiar. It frequently happens that the speaker is not sufficiently familiar with the work of the hearer's primary interest to talk in terms of that interest. He can then fall back on the secondary interests of his hearer and present his message, at least in part, in terms of those secondary interests.

Secondary interests are also frequently very useful in opening a talk on the hearer's primary interest even when the

speaker is able to talk in terms of that primary interest. If the speaker and the hearer are acquainted through association together in any secondary activity, some reference to this common secondary interest often places the hearer in a genial and receptive mood. The foundation of many business deals is laid at the bridge game and on the golf course.

Secondary interests may also be used when the speaker is a stranger, if the speaker is able to find an unobtrusive way of reference to it. The story is told of a salesman who noticed a golf bag, full of steel-shaft clubs, standing in the corner of the room where he was waiting to see a business man. He was examining the clubs when the business man came out to invite him to come in. He introduced himself and then asked whether the steel shafts helped in securing longer drives and in this way opened the conference on a secondary interest of his hearer.

Influence of momentary interests. Momentary interests are those of a transitory character. The attention which we give to momentary interests is largely involuntary. We attend to them because they are forced upon our attention. Every person who reads the newspapers develops momentary interest in many things which never claim his primary or secondary interest. People who do not have either primary or secondary interest in aviation have their momentary interest aroused by such events as Lindbergh's non-stop New York to Paris flight and Byrd's flight over the North Pole. These events are forced upon our attention by the publicity given them in the newspapers.

People with little or no interest in China have their attention called to that country by civil war. People who ordinarily take little interest in politics develop a momentary interest at the time of the national conventions and campaign. Such events as the World War, the Pan-American Conference, and the meetings of the League of Nations arouse a momentary interest in international affairs.

When dealing with subjects likely at any time to become momentary interests of your hearer, you should be ready to

move for the desired action when interest is at its peak. When everyone is reading and talking about the subject, the speaker has the best chance of securing attention to his ideas. When momentary interests pass and others take their place, it is more difficult to get the desired action. The 1913 Ohio flood did a great deal of damage to life and property in the city of Dayton as well as in a number of other communities. Immediately following the flood the citizens of Dayton started plans for controlling flood waters above the city so there would never be a recurrence. In a very short time bond issues were voted by the people and huge dams constructed. Had the city's leaders waited five or ten years before launching their plans, the momentary interest in flood prevention, created by the flood itself, would have waned and it would have been more difficult to secure the necessary appropriations.

People who ordinarily have little interest in courts and criminal procedure have their interest momentarily aroused by a particularly notorious miscarriage of justice. The best time to secure reforms in criminal procedure is when this interest is the most widespread.

Progressive business concerns try to capitalize on momentary interest when they have the opportunity. As an example of this, the manufacturers of much of the equipment used by Lindbergh in his great oceanic flight immediately featured Lindbergh's use of their products in their advertising. An automobile manufacturing company called the attention of the public to the fact that Lindbergh used an air-cooled motor and that their automobiles were equipped with motors of the same type. Another pointed out that Lindbergh used their motor oil and showed that his flight was an unusual test of its lubricating quality. Another pointed to the fact that he used their brand of spark plugs. In each case the manufacturer was trying to take advantage of the widespread momentary interest in the flight.

Momentary interests are often the point of attack in securing attention to primary and secondary interests. Just before

any great event or series of events, as the national conventions of the two great political parties, manufacturers of radio receiving sets point out that the whole proceedings will be broadcast. They attempt to capitalize the momentary interest in the conventions to sell their products.

Momentary interests may be used in the same way in any kind of a speech, either public or private, to gain attention to a primary or secondary interest. Speakers should be familiar with all of the principal events of the day so that they may make use of them in sending their own ideas home.

When the speaker is familiar with the primary interest of his audience he should bring his ideas within their experience by references to that primary interest. If the audience is composed of doctors, he should talk in terms of medicine. If it is composed of accountants, he should present his ideas in terms of accounting.

If he is talking to a mixed audience with varying primary interests, it is obvious that references to any one primary interest cannot reach all and it is equally obvious that it will be impossible to include references to every primary interest represented there. When dealing with audiences of mixed primary interests it is best, therefore, to fall back either on the common everyday experiences of everyone or on secondary and momentary interests.

The same difficulty is often found with secondary interests. These vary from person to person just as primary interests vary, and with an audience having mixed secondary interests a reference to the experience of one will not be a reference to that of another. Momentary interests are common to everyone, and the speaker should make use of them with audiences of this type. If the speaker's references to momentary interests are to those being discussed in the newspapers at the time, in a widespread manner, the chances are that they will be familiar to all.

Making the familiar vivid. Not all references to the primary, secondary, and momentary interests of an audience will be vivid. Some will have been forgotten because they

were not sufficiently intense to be remembered. Some do not happen often enough to be vivid. Others happened too long in the past and have been forgotten. There are certain principles governing vividness which the speaker should apply to his references. These are, *original intensity, frequency of occurrence, frequency of recollection,* and *recency.*[6] In using the familiar the speaker should see that he refers to experiences which satisfy these principles of vividness. An originally intense experience is apt to be remembered frequently. It is vivid, and any reference to it is familiar. Experiences which are frequent in recurrence are vivid because attention is called to them again and again. Recent experiences are vivid because other experiences have not crowded them out of consciousness. What we do today is far more vivid than what we did yesterday or last week. Make your references to experience familiar by selecting those which satisfy these requirements for vividness.

Influence of the striking. In compelling attention to wants, the use of the striking is often the only method which will accomplish the desired end. It is a very effective method of making a man conscious of his want. An insurance salesman, who was having considerable difficulty getting a certain business man to appreciate his want to protect his wife and children, hit upon a novel and striking method of making his hearer conscious of that want. He had had several interviews with the prospect, but without success. One day he tried again and was greeted with the prospect's often repeated assertion that he wasn't interested in life insurance. The salesman replied, "I am not selling life insurance today. I am selling washing machines, and you are surely interested in providing your wife with this means of making a living after you are gone." This striking suggestion set the man to thinking. It made him conscious of his want and resulted in a sale.

Influence of the concrete. The mind can grasp and appreciate concrete statements far more easily than it can

[6] A. E. Phillips, *Effective Speaking,* p. 34.

understand general, abstract statements. Speakers should therefore strive to give their ideas concrete expression. The success of the mail order business is to a large extent due to the concreteness used in the preparation of the mail order catalogue. The reader is given exact information about all the articles listed.

The foreman who makes a report on the breakdown of a machine must be able to present all the concrete facts about the mishap, that is, the exact causes, in order for the manager to be in a position to take the steps necessary to prevent a recurrence.

SUMMARY

Every speaker who wishes to attain his speech purpose must secure and hold the attention of his hearer. Attention is secured through interest. People are interested in their wants and will listen with effortless attention to talks showing how these wants may be satisfied. The common wants of everyone are, *to be healthy, to acquire property, to have power, to have a good reputation, to have friends, to avoid fear, to love and protect others, to imitate or to differ from others, to have recreation,* and *to satisfy tastes.* Attention may be forced to these wants by making them *vital,* making them *familiar,* and by using the *striking* and the *concrete.*

IV

SPECIAL SPEECH DEVICES—SUGGESTION AND IMAGERY

Definition of suggestion. Relation of suggestion to reason. Personality and suggestion. Influence of the speaker's age. Influence of intelligence. Influence of appearance. Influence of speech. Influence of authority. Influence of prestige. Influence of the hearer's known opinions about the speaker. Speech conditions and suggestion. Audiences. Personal conferences. Using direct suggestion. The familiar. Yes-response technique. Hopes and aspirations. Imagery. The need of imagery in speech composition. Visual. Auditory. Motor. Tactile. Thermic. Olfactory. Gustatory. The use of images.

Suggestion is the term applied to any idea or group of ideas which result in acceptance or action in the absence of logical reasons for that acceptance or action. Suggestion plays a very important rôle in all successful speaking, whether it be public or private. Three things influence suggestibility; the personality of the speaker, the external physical conditions under which the speech is made, and the speaker's selection and use of words. Of these three the influence of the speaker's personality is often the most important. If there are adverse factors in the speaker's personality, it is very difficult, and in many cases impossible, for the other two to exercise any considerable influence. The relation of personality to suggestion is therefore given more attention than the other two and is discussed separately. The influence of the conditions under which the talk is made and the speaker's use of words are discussed under the headings of "Speech Conditions and Suggestion" and "Using Direct Suggestion."

RELATION OF SUGGESTION TO REASON

As compared with reason, suggestion is a short cut to the

end desired. It goes to the heart of the matter quickly and is a great saver of time and energy. It deals with the sentiments, feelings, and emotions of the hearer rather than with his logical faculties.

Everyone is influenced by suggestion. We like to think that we always act after a thorough examination of the facts and a careful weighing of the evidence, but modern students are agreed that actions resulting from pure reason are very rare. It is true that many of our acts are the result of reason, but it is highly probable that most of them are the result of an intermixture of both and in many cases suggestion alone results in action.

As an example of action resulting from suggestion alone, we are giving the following account of the purchase of an office building at 71 Broadway, New York, by the United States Steel Corporation.[1]

One of the great real estate men of the country, J. P. Day, tells of negotiating with Judge Gary for the sale to the United States Steel Corporation of the building at 71 Broadway, which has always contained its offices.

"I thought I had closed the sale," says Mr. Day, when calling upon Judge Gary, he said, very gently, but very decisively:

"Mr. Day, we have had the offer of a much more modern building near here and it would seem to answer our purposes better. It is a better furnished building. This building is too old-fashioned; you know it is a very old structure. Some of my associates think that, all in all, the other building will answer our purposes better than this one." There was a $5,000,000 sale drifting out of the window. I did not answer for a moment and Judge Gary did not go on. I did not attempt to answer. I, instead, asked:

"Judge Gary, where was your first office when you came to New York?"

"Right here," he said, "or rather the room on the other side."

"Where was the Steel Corporation organized?"

"Why, right here in these offices," he mused rather than answered. And then of his own accord: "Some of the younger executives have from time to time had more elaborate offices than

[1] Quoted from J. A. Stevenson, *Constructive Salesmanship*, p. 279. Harper & Brothers.

this. They have not been quite satisfied with the older furniture. But," he added, "none of these men are with us now."

The sale was over. The next week we finally closed.

If Mr. Day had marshalled all the evidence tending to show that his building would be more satisfactory than the other, the chances are that he would have lost the sale. Mr. Gary had apparently examined all the evidence and had come to the logical conclusion that the other building was more suitable. He probably was prepared to meet every attack on his decision, except the one that was made. The suggestion that the purchase of the other building would take the Steel Corporation away from the offices where it was conceived and developed, under the guiding hand of Judge Gary, was far more potent than any reason could have been.

PERSONALITY AND SUGGESTION

All phases of the speaker's personality, including age, intelligence, dress, speech, and prestige, have either a heightening or a dampening effect upon the hearer's suggestibility.

Influence of the speaker's age. Age has a marked influence on suggestibility only when the difference between the speaker's and the hearer's age is great. When they are of the same age or nearly the same age, there is little or no influence on suggestibility.

When the speaker is much older than the hearer, there is a natural tendency for this factor to increase suggestibility, unless other factors, as intelligence, appearance, speech, prestige, operate in the other direction. When the speaker is much younger than the hearer, this fact tends to dampen the hearer's suggestibility in the absence of any of the other factors which may tend to increase suggestibility.

A high school boy would have great difficulty convincing the city council that all streets should be paved with the same kind of material for the reason that they regard him as too young to know much about it.

Influence of intelligence. Here, also, it is only the great difference in intelligence which influences suggestibility. If there is not a marked difference, intelligence has little or no effect. When the speaker is known to be particularly well informed and competent, as compared with the hearer, that fact increases the hearer's suggestibility. On the other hand, when the speaker's intelligence falls considerably below that of the hearer, that fact operates as a bar to suggestibility.

The preceding paragraph discusses the problem in reference to the general intelligence levels of high, average, and low. We must also consider the subject from the point of view of the different kinds of intelligence. A speaker having high esthetic intelligence who is discussing a subject from the field of art before an audience having high mechanical intelligence would find his audience highly suggestible. A speaker having high mechanical intelligence, discussing a problem in machine design before an audience having high social intelligence, would have little difficulty in using suggestion. On the other hand, when the speaker's predominant intelligence is social, he would have great difficulty in the use of suggestion when talking to an audience having high mechanical intelligence on the subject of the manufacture of glass.

Of course, even these types may be further subdivided. One man may have a very high mechanical intelligence in the manufacture of glass and a very low mechanical intelligence in the manufacture of steel. This fact is also important and must be taken into consideration.

Suggestibility is highest when the speaker has a high intelligence in the field of the subject of the talk and his hearer has a low intelligence in the same field.

Influence of appearance. The speaker's dress, degree of cleanliness, and so on, should harmonize with that of the hearer, or should be on a higher level than that of the hearer. To fall below the appearance level of the hearer is, in many cases, to seriously interfere with suggestibility. The writer was once present at an interview between a book salesman

and the librarian of one of our state universities. The salesman was selling a set of books containing a wide variety of selections from literature. His appearance level fell considerably below that of the hearer. His clothing was shabby, his face unshaven, his nails dirty. The suggestions arising from his unkempt appearance entirely offset the suggestion that the library purchase the books. The librarian told me afterwards that they could easily get along without the set as they had the same selections in other collections, but that she might have bought it, in spite of that, had it not been for the man's appearance. To fall below the appearance level of the hearer is to decrease suggestibility.

Influence of speech. Speech has been described as "the mirror of the soul." Shakespeare said, "Mend your speech a little, lest it may mar your fortunes." There is probably no more important factor in personality. Pleasing, convincing, and persuasive speech is a priceless business asset. We are largely judged on what we say and the way we say it.

To have high suggestive value the speaker's talk should rise above the speech efficiency level of the hearer. He should be able to express himself in not only clear but pictorial language. He should cultivate those qualities of voice which give a pleasing vehicle to carry the ideas he wishes to communicate.

Because of the fact that speech is so common, most people do not prize it; we are careless of this ability on which so much of our success depends. The man who takes the trouble to improve his speech has a better chance for greater achievement. If you wish your speech to have a suggestive influence on your hearer, increase your capacity to speak effectively.

In order to avoid adverse factors influencing suggestibility, the speech of the speaker should not fall below the level of that of the hearer. Speech which does fall below the hearer's standard will call attention away from the speaker's ideas and will thus be an adverse factor.

Influence of the speaker's authority. When the speaker

enjoys authority over the hearer he may make large use of suggestion. Orders are almost always issued in the form of suggestions. It is not necessary for the speaker to reason with his subordinates, for their future depends upon obedience to his suggestions. The speaker who has authority over his audience is thus in a favored position in the use of suggestion.

As has been already pointed out, the danger in the excessive use of suggestion by the person who has authority over his hearer is that the suggestions alone may fail to communicate his ideas effectively. It may be that if he takes the subordinate into his confidence and explains all the reasons for the action, fuller cooperation will result.

Influence of the speaker's prestige. A speaker who has prestige influences others more easily because of his past successes, character, and reputation. The speaker who is known as a success in the field of the subject matter of the talk will have his suggestions accepted uncritically. The same thing is true to a large extent of the speaker who has a reputation for unimpeachable integrity and honesty. The speaker should strive to make himself an authority for his particular audience, for this increases suggestibility.

Influence of hearer's opinion about the speaker. This section summarizes all that has just been said about the relation of personality to suggestion. All the aspects of personality, as age, intelligence, appearance, speech, authority, and prestige, directly determine the opinion which the hearer may have of the speaker. If all these factors influence the hearer in the right way, his opinions of the speaker will be favorable and suggestibility will be increased. If any factor of personality jars the hearer and leads to unfavorable opinions, suggestibility will be decreased.

SPEECH CONDITIONS AND SUGGESTION

The suggestive power of the speaker's personality may be seriously interfered with by the conditions under which he

speaks. We shall consider this phase of the subject under the audience and the personal conference.

Audiences. The first thing we shall consider is the size of the auditorium in relation to the size of the audience. A small audience scattered over a large auditorium is not very suggestible. Suggestibility is greatly increased by providing an auditorium suited to the size of the audience. When this cannot be done, the speaker should insist that the group be seated together in the front part of the room near the speaker.

When people are seated elbow to elbow suggestibility is increased. When one hearer makes a favorable response it tends to start a whole wave of favorable responses. The same thing is, of course, true of unfavorable responses. When the speaker requests his audience to come down in front, he should not begin to talk until they comply, for this is doing something in common and increases suggestibility. Failure to insist on compliance decreases suggestibility.

Second, to control suggestibility all the external conditioning factors discussed in Chapter II must be taken into consideration. When distractions of all kinds are eliminated and the audience is comfortable, suggestibility is increased.

Personal conferences. The conditions under which the conference is held either increase or decrease suggestibility. The same external conditioning factors apply to conferences as apply to audiences. The hearer should be comfortable and distractions should be eliminated. The conferrer should make every effort to hold the conference under conditions which will tend to increase suggestibility.

USING DIRECT SUGGESTION

All the ideas we have advanced about the influence of the various factors making up the personality of the speaker and the influence of the conditions under which the talk is presented make use of indirect suggestion. We have yet to consider direct suggestions or suggestions made by the use of words. Direct suggestions are at least as important as

indirect and in many cases they are more important. The three most important methods of using suggestion directly are by making use of the *familiar,* the *"yes-response technique,"* and the *hopes and aspirations* of the hearer.[2]

The familiar. To bring our ideas within the experience of our hearer is to give them great suggestive power. The natural reaction of the man who hears a subject discussed in terms of his familiar experiences is, "Here is a man who knows what he is talking about." When the speaker makes large use of the familiar, the tendency is for his ideas to be accepted more uncritically.

The familiar must, of course, be considered in reference to the three kinds of interests—primary, secondary, and momentary. When the speaker treats his subject in terms of the primary interest of his hearer, he touches the wants and desires of that hearer. This indicates to the hearer that the speaker has an understanding of that primary interest and there is a natural feeling of kinship between people who have an understanding of each other's problems.

The suggestive power of secondary and momentary interests is usually not as great as that of primary interests, but is sufficiently important to merit consideration. The speaker who shows a familiarity with the secondary interests of his hearer and with the principal events of the day secures the reputation of being well informed. Ideas coming from a person who is considered by the hearer to be well informed are accepted more uncritically than ideas coming from a person who has not been able to create that impression. Treat your subject in terms of the familiar experiences of your hearer, first in terms of his primary interest and then in terms of his secondary and momentary interests, and you will give your ideas high suggestive power.

"The yes-response technique."[3] The yes-response technique is the term we apply to the method of getting the hearer to say "yes," either orally or silently, to each of a

[2] Sandford and Yeager, *Principles of Effective Speaking,* pp. 120-123.

[3] H. A. Overstreet, *Influencing Human Behavior,* p. 16.

series of ideas. The speaker controls and encourages the yes-response by making statements with which he is sure the hearer will agree. When a whole chain of yes-responses has been built up without interruption by a "no," the speaker gets the hearer into the habit of saying "Yes." When he comes to that part of his talk where he attempts to move the hearer to action, it is more difficult for him to say "No."

The importance of the yes-response cannot be overestimated. It is one of the foundation principles of all persuasive speaking. Yet it is often overlooked. So many do not recognize the importance of getting other people into the habit of agreeing with them. The person who says "Yes" is a forward-looking, open-minded individual. The man who says "No" puts his whole being into the rejection. If the speaker is so unfortunate in his methods and manner of presenting his case as to arouse a series of no-responses, his chances of getting a yes-response at the crucial moment of his talk are very remote. It makes little difference what may have been the stimulus of the "no," the result is the same. The personality of the speaker may be out of harmony with that of the hearer, or he may have made an unguarded remark about any of the groups in which the hearer is a member, or he may not have handled the hearer's prejudices as lightly as he should. It is obvious that no-responses may arise from a hundred and one things entirely unconnected with the subject of the talk as well as in the talk itself.

To get the hearer to say "Yes" is therefore one of the speaker's most important problems. In order to guard against a direct "no" the speaker should state all questions in the affirmative. An affirmative question invites a "yes." A negative question invites a "no." The power of the affirmative suggestion is illustrated by the great department store that saved thousands of dollars in delivery costs by having its clerks ask their customers, after every purchase, "Do you wish to take the package with you?"

Hopes and aspirations. Finally, when the speaker deals

with the hopes and aspirations of his hearer he is dealing with a very fertile field for direct suggestion. Suggestion is very useful when dealing with the future, and, of course, one's hopes and aspirations are all in the future.

A great part of the life insurance sold today is sold because the salesman is able to present vivid images of a contented, comfortable old age. Much of it is sold because the salesman builds on the prospect's hopes for the future of his wife and children. When the salesman points out that an early death will seriously interfere with the education of the prospect's children, he has used a very potent suggestion which often leads to the desired action.

The impelling power of suggestions dealing with hopes and aspirations is well illustrated by the appeals made in the sale of almost every educational service. The prospect is told that if he will purchase and study the course offered, he will grow in intelligence and will rise to a position of wealth and power. Suggestion is used to paint glowing pictures of the future.

A large part of all inspirational speaking is founded on suggestions about the hearer's hopes and aspirations. The inspirational speaker tries to stimulate his audience to greater effort in order that they may be able to satisfy their wants in a more complete manner. He points out that hard work and the use of more advanced methods will enable the hearer to change his hopes and aspirations into realities.

These are all legitimate uses of suggestion. There is, however, one type of suggestion in dealing with the hopes and aspirations which must be guarded against. Suggestions of this type, in the hands of an unscrupulous speaker, may easily become the means of swindling people. Fake stock promotion schemes of all kinds are always put over by this use of suggestion. The promoter paints glowing pictures of the wealth and influence that will come to those who buy the stock. It is significant that most of the people who are taken in by schemes of this kind are those of rather low intelligence. The more experienced and intelligent man has a wide stock

of critical information with which to test the statements made to him.

SUMMARY

Suggestion is the term applied to any idea or group of ideas which result in acceptance or action in the absence of logical reasons for that acceptance or action. It accomplishes the speaker's purpose more quickly than appeals to reason. It bears a very direct relation to the speaker's personality. The speaker's *age, intelligence, appearance, speech, authority, prestige,* and *the hearer's opinions about the speaker* all affect the use of suggestion. Suggestibility is influenced also by the conditions under which the talk is made. The hearer or the audience must be comfortable and distractions must be eliminated. The suggestibility of audiences is increased by having them seated together just in front of the speaker.

The methods used in making use of direct suggestion are the *"yes-response technique," the familiar,* and the *hopes and aspirations* of the hearer. Get the hearer to say, "Yes" to what you say. Deal with your subject in terms of the common experiences of his primary, secondary, and momentary interests. Finally, deal with his hopes and aspirations.

VIVIDNESS IN SPEECH COMPOSITION

All speech devices, such as appeals to the wants and interests of an audience and the elements of interestingness, must be so stated and phrased that they remain clear and vivid. The important thing to remember is that the audience can best retain and remember that which is strikingly presented. Imagery, therefore, is a method for using the striking as an element of interestingness.

Our ideas must be strikingly presented in all kinds of speech because the listener, unlike the reader, must gain his impressions at once or he will not get them at all. The

sticking quality which is so necessary for our ideas is supplied by imagery.

IMAGERY

An image may be defined as a reproduction of a sense experience. Our sense experiences include everything we have seen, heard, felt, tasted, and smelled. They also include experiences of muscular movement and effort and sensations of heat and cold. When the speaker uses an image, there is reproduced in us some previous sense experience which is the nearest equivalent to the one portrayed by the speaker. Sense experiences are common to all of us, with the exception of those few who have physical disabilities. The quickest road to the minds of our hearers is through these sense experiences.

Lloyd George, in a speech at a farewell dinner given in his honor in New York, in 1923, said, "Germany, Austria, were shattered, demoralized, disarmed, prostrate; we left them like broken-backed creatures on the road for a chariot to run over."[4] Suppose in place of this statement he had said, "Germany and Austria were ruined by the war." The first statement makes use of the sensational experience of his audience. The second contains no image. The striking quality of the first is directly due to the images it suggests in the minds of his hearers. When his audience heard the images of his statement, the idea was clear to them. They got a very definite impression. It was vivid.

The speaker should cultivate the use of all forms of imagery in order to add vividness to his style. In the probable order of their frequency and importance, they are:

Visual. Visual images serve to recall things seen, as, "The two football teams lined up on the forty-five yard line;" "The sparkling glow of molten metal."

Auditory. Auditory images recall things heard: "The screaming of fire whistles;" "The roar of machines."

[4] Homer Lindgren, *Modern Speeches,* p. 331.

Motor. Motor images recall muscular movements: "He pushed and shoved his way through the jostling, hurrying crowd."

Tactile. Tactile images recall things touched. They are cutaneous sensations: "The smoothness of silk; roughness of tweed; the keen edge of a knife; the stickiness of glue."

Thermic. Images of this type recall sensations of heat and cold. They are frequently combined with tactile images: "The heat of the furnace; the cold of the ice box; the chilling wind of a cold wintry day."

Olfactory. Olfactory images recall things smelled: "The sweet, sickening odor of escaping gas;" "the fragrance of apple blossoms."

Gustatory. Images of this type recall sensations of taste. They are sometimes combined with the olfactory: "The sweetness of a good Jonathan apple; the tang of grapefruit; the bitterness of quinine."

THE USE OF IMAGES

The first thing to be noted is that no classification of images can be mutually exclusive. Visual images, for instance, are nearly always present to some degree in the other forms. The speaker should remember that all these types are very useful in sending his message home. He should not stop with the presentation of visual images only, although they are probably the most important. He should strive to make himself proficient in the use of all the other types.

The motor imagery of some people is stronger than their visual imagery. A speaker who insists in using only the visual will not succeed with hearers of this type. If the speaker in a conference knows that his hearer recalls a particular type of sense experience more vividly than others, he should limit himself to the presentation of images of that type. Before an audience where some are predominantly visual, some auditory, some motor, some gustatory, the only safe rule to follow is to use all the types of imagery and

thus insure putting the message vividly into the minds of everyone.

Imagery is produced by the selection and the arrangement of words. Those words should be selected which have a pictorial quality. Words should be concrete and should have a specific descriptive quality. The image must be presented in detail or the recall will not be vivid. Fast-moving narration and succinct description offer many opportunities for the use of vivid imagery. One of the most famous examples in American oratory of imagery of this kind is in Daniel Webster's *White Murder Trial* speech.[5] He wished to get his hearers to understand exactly how the murder was accomplished and he did it by making use of all the kinds of imagery we have just described. The third use of imagery is through figures of speech, especially the simile and the metaphor.[6]

SUMMARY

Imagery is produced by making use of the sense experiences of our hearers. The forms of imagery, in the probable order of their importance, are visual, auditory, motor, tactile, thermic, olfactory, and gustatory. These images are produced, first, by the use of words which give rise to "mental pictures"; second, by the use of short descriptive or narrative passages; third, by the use of figures of speech.

[5] J. M. O'Neill, *Models of Speech Composition*, p. 3.

[6] For an intensely interesting discussion of the application of imagery to problems in business speaking the reader is referred to Victor Alvin Ketcham's lectures on *Speech Efficiency, Persuasive Power, Tact and Skill in Argument, Extempore Speaking*, and *The Public Address*.

V

ORGANIZING A TALK

The need of a plan. The layout of a talk. Preliminary layout. The completed layout. Developing the speech plan. The objective—the specific purpose. Stating the purpose. Limiting the purpose. The main ideas. The main ideas must appeal. The main ideas should be few. The order of main ideas. Speech details. Specific cases. Comparisons. Statistics. Expert opinion. Reiteration. Attention-getting introductions. Forceful conclusions. Outlining the speech.

THE object of speaking is to achieve definite results. These results are accomplished by implanting *carefully chosen ideas* in the mind of the hearer. Only to the extent that these ideas are impressed upon the listener, and made acceptable to him, will the talk succeed. If, at the end of a conversation, only the pungent words and vigorous actions of the speaker are remembered, he has failed. Clear organization is necessary to make the *ideas of the talk* stand out. This is a feature of effective speaking which is neglected almost entirely by authors on salesmanship. We would not think much of an architect who began his design of a building by planning the flagpole, the sculptural embellishments, and the colored tile effects. Yet that is what the average writer on salesmanship does. Clever and pointed ways of saying things, tricks for rapid closing, methods of shocking the hearer into attention, and the like, make up, it would seem, the "persuasive" salesman's kit of tools! This emphasis upon details makes for poor talking. It makes for reliance upon rules of thumb, which, when the devices used have become generally known, become trite and ineffective. It is important, of course, that the speaker possess skill in dealing with details. More important, however, is skill in dealing with ideas, and in organizing those ideas so that they gain the complete attention of the hearer.

Just as a factory is planned in detail before it is built, just as a piece of machinery is envisioned in blue prints before a single piece of steel is fabricated, so a purposive talk should be charted, planned, or diagrammed in advance. This is true of all kinds of talks, from the personal conference to the formal public address. Without a well-developed speech plan, the person who seeks to influence others by his talk courts failure. However clever and original some of his remarks may be, they will fail to convey and impress ideas. The hearer will not be able to see the woods for the trees.

THE LAYOUT OF A TALK

To emphasize the fact that a speech has a definite structure, we present in Figure 1 a diagram showing the relation of the parts of the speech to each other and to the *specific purpose*. Study of this chart will reveal the extent to which the preparation of any kind of a talk may be systematized. Efficient preparation will become a habit if this chart is followed. Clear organization will be a result of this effi-

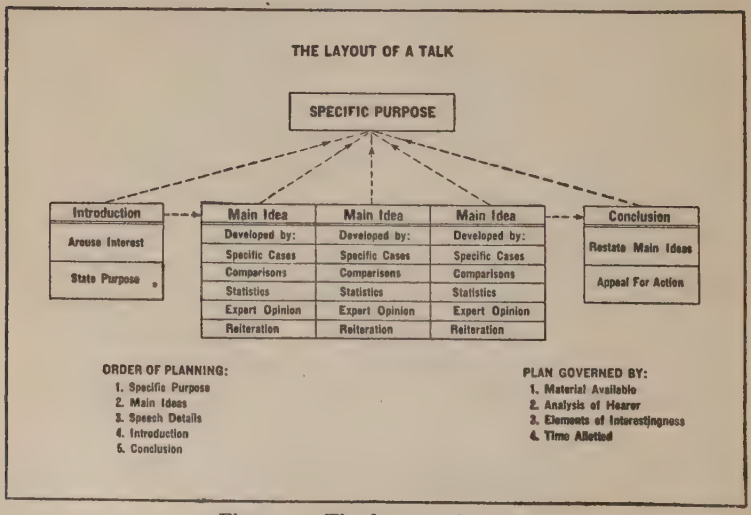

Figure 1: The layout of a talk.

cient procedure in selecting and putting together the ideas and facts which are to be used.

Preliminary layout. The *specific purpose* and *main ideas* constitute what we may call the *preliminary layout* of the speech.

At the top of the chart, we have the *specific purpose.* This is the precise objective which the speaker wishes to attain. It may be "To secure this position," "To convince President Jones that an efficiency expert should be engaged," "To persuade this prospect to buy an X automobile." In every case, the first step in preparing a talk is to determine exactly what you wish to accomplish.

Directly beneath the specific purpose, we have the *main ideas,* of which there may be one or several. These are the principal statements of fact or opinion by which the speaker seeks to attain his specific purpose. Once the precise objective of a talk is determined, the selection of the main ideas is of the greatest importance. Through them the speaker seeks to instruct or persuade his hearer, and thus to influence him as he desires. As indicated by the arrows, each main idea must contribute directly to the achievement of the speaker's purpose.

The specific purpose and main ideas constitute the rough sketch, or preliminary outline of the talk. Their selection and phrasing should be done before any further details are planned. *In making this preliminary plan, the speaker must apply the principles developed in Chapters II and III on Analyzing the Hearer.*

The completed layout. The main ideas having been selected, attention should next be given to their development. For this purpose, as shown in the chart, the speaker may use five kinds of details, namely, *specific cases, comparisons, statistics, expert opinions, and reiteration.* The nature of these details will be explained, and their relative value discussed, later in this chapter. Suffice it to say here that the speaker should select such details as, in his judgment, will be effective in persuading his specific hearer, and that he

should then arrange them in the order which he deems will be most convincing. The details must make acceptable the main ideas which they develop. *Thus they, too, are governed by the principles of audience analysis and persuasion.*

Last, the *introduction* and the *conclusion* should be planned. The introduction is designed, as stated in the chart, to arouse interest in the speaker's subject and purpose and, sometimes, to state the purpose definitely. In arousing interest, the speaker must make exceptionally good use of the principles of persuasion. The conclusion has two functions: to recall to the hearer the main ideas presented during the talk, and to clinch the result by an appeal for action. *Thus, both the introduction and the conclusion are governed by the principles of persuasion set forth in preceding chapters.*

It will be noted that every part of the speech plan bears a definite relation to the specific purpose. Everything that is said should assist the speaker to achieve his objective. If material is introduced which does not tend toward this result, the speech will not succeed completely. Thus the careful selection and arrangement of the parts of the talk is of vital importance. He who would be effective in private conversation or in public speaking must master the details of the speech plan. It is just as important to the speaker as the "layout" is to the advertisement writer.

DEVELOPING THE SPEECH PLAN

Having taken a bird's-eye view of the speech layout, we now proceed to a discussion of its parts and of the methods by which the ideas and details should be selected, phrased, and arranged. We assume that the speaker has gathered his material, in part at least. He must at this point know, in a general way, what he wants to say, although the development of the speech plan may indicate to him that additional information will be necessary. We assume also that he has

analyzed his prospective hearer and that he is familiar with the persuasive methods explained in Chapters II to V, inclusive. Facts having been gathered, and the situation surveyed, the speaker may plan his campaign.

The objective—the specific purpose. No endeavor, in military or business life, can be planned until the precise objective is fixed. The field marshal determines, to the fraction of a mile, the points to which his troops can be expected to advance, and then plans for the utilization of artillery, infantry, engineers, and aviation to reach the fixed objective. Everything is coordinated to that end. The field marshal of business plans his sales campaign, fixing a definite objective after consideration of market possibilities, distribution, and manufacturing facilities. All his resources in advertising, personal correspondence, and personal solicitation are then used to achieve the goal. Fixing the objective is the first step in planning a campaign. Similarly in speaking. Every purposive interview should have a definitely fixed objective. Every sales talk should be pointed toward definite action, present or future. Every inspirational talk must aim to achieve a certain reaction in the hearer. Every talk on a question of policy should have as its target the adoption, abandonment, or modification of a line of procedure. This objective, or target, may properly be termed the specific purpose.

Stating the purpose. The specific purpose should be phrased by the speaker to include: (1) the exact understanding or action desired; (2) the person or persons who are to understand or act; (3) when, and where, and how, the desired action is to be taken. These things constitute the objective which the speaker intends to reach. The following were the specific purposes of speeches delivered at the Fourth Session of the National Retail Furniture Institute, held July 12-17, 1926, in Grand Rapids:

To inspire the audience to greater enthusiasm for its business.
To explain a system of accounting for the retail furniture store.

To emphasize the need of better salesmanship to increase the volume of retail furniture business.
To make clear the effect of the widespread installment practice on the furniture business.
To explain the method of making attractive furniture displays.
To explain the preparation of a complete advertising program for a furniture store.
To convince the audience that direct mail advertising pays.

Limiting the purpose. The purpose of the speaker is limited to what it is possible to achieve in view of three things: (1) the willingness of the hearer to act, or his capacity to understand; (2) the surrounding circumstances which limit the hearer in taking action; (3) the time allotted to the speaker to present his case.

When his object is to make a sale, to get a policy adopted, to secure employment, or in fact to get any kind of positive action, the speaker must consider carefully the present state of mind of the hearer. Is the hearer (1) strongly opposed to the action desired, (2) slightly opposed, (3) indifferent or uninterested, (4) slightly favorable, or (5) strongly favorable? How much "sales resistance" to the speaker's idea is there? In general, the greater the opposition or indifference, the more narrowly the speaker should restrict his specific purpose. It is almost impossible, in one interview or speech, to change a hearer from a state of strong opposition to one favoring action. Therefore, instead of choosing as a specific purpose, "Install the XYZ system of filing in your office," the skillful salesman would restrict his purpose upon first interviewing a difficult prospect to "Let us survey the needs of your office for an improved filing system, and present the results of our investigation to you." To attempt too much would probably result in failure. On the other hand, a properly limited specific purpose may be achieved, and the entering wedge for ultimate action inserted.

In making reports and oral explanations, the speaker must consider the hearer's capacity to understand, and limit his purpose accordingly. To attempt to explain a difficult

problem in accounting to an audience of general employees would be inadvisable. The degree of technical knowledge possessed by the hearer must be taken into account.

Surrounding circumstances which limit the hearer in taking action must be considered. It is well to ask yourself, "Have these hearers the authority to take the action I am requesting, or can they merely make recommendations?" "Is it physically possible for them to take the action desired?" By asking such questions, you will avoid wasting time in arguing for impossible ends. In addressing conventions, for instance, it is usually not possible to make direct "sales talks," and, as in the case of several of the examples cited from the Retail Furniture Institute program, the speaker should limit himself to presentation of the desirable features of his plan, without attempting to get immediate action. Thus, "to convince the audience that direct mail advertising pays," was a more appropriate specific purpose than, "to persuade these merchants to engage the services of my firm to conduct a direct mail campaign."

The time allotted for the speech or interview will limit the scope of the speaker's purpose. Obviously, in five minutes one cannot hope to accomplish what might be achieved in half an hour. The speaker, therefore, must decide just how much he should attempt to do in the time at his disposal.

Time spent in limiting the specific purpose to what may be accomplished in view of the hearer's frame of mind, surrounding circumstances, and time allotted for the speaker will pay dividends in success. Many speakers fail to attain their ends because they have not considered these matters carefully enough. They attempt the impossible and, naturally, fall far short of success.

The main ideas. With the specific purpose properly chosen and limited, the speaker turns to the selection of the main ideas. His object is to choose a few main propositions which, when made clear or persuasive to the audience, will lead to the accomplishment of his purpose. It is important that he use mature judgment in selecting these ideas, for they

are the means by which he hopes to gain his ends. In view of the audience, the subject, and the situation, he must determine what propositions will be most effective. *Here is the central problem in planning a speech or interview.*

Four principles should guide the speaker in the selection, wording, and arrangement of main ideas:

1. The main ideas must lead logically to the acceptance of the specific purpose.
2. The main ideas must be chosen to appeal to the wants, ideals, and tastes of the hearers.
3. The main ideas must be few in number, that they may be remembered.
4. The main ideas must be arranged in the most persuasive order, depending on hearer and situation.

The main ideas must be logical. There must be a distinct logical connection between the main ideas and the specific purpose. In a speech seeking belief, the main ideas must present reasons why the audience should accept the speaker's contention as stated in his specific purpose. In a speech seeking action, they must give reasons why the audience should act. In a report or explanation, they must be ideas which will lead to a proper understanding of the subject the speaker is attempting to make clear. The main ideas must support the speaker's specific purpose. To illustrate:

Specific Purpose.
Direct mail advertising pays.

Main Ideas
1. It is sure to receive attention.
2. It permits selective choice of prospects.
3. It may be "keyed" to show results.
4. It is less expensive in proportion to sales made than newspaper advertising.

These main ideas, if proved to the satisfaction of the audience, would secure acceptance for the speaker's specific purpose.

For a speech of explanation, the main ideas should also relate logically to the specific purpose. To illustrate:

Specific Purpose.
To explain how to plan an advertising campaign.
Main Ideas
1. The advertising budget should represent five per cent of the volume of sales.
2. The budget should be allocated to different months according to the seasonal fluctuations of business.
3. The budget should be divided between different types of advertising in proportion to their relative importance.

Each of these main ideas, it will be noted, takes up one step in the general planning of an advertising campaign. When all have been made clear, the specific purpose will have been achieved.

First, then, select main ideas which logically support the specific purpose. "Hew to the line," and introduce no idea which does not contribute something to the achievement of your end.

The main ideas must appeal. Appeal to the hearers is equally important in choosing main ideas. It is not enough that there be a logical connection between the ideas and the purpose. Each idea should be chosen with a view to the wants, tastes, and ideals of the audience. Chapter III has dealt with the elements of interestingness. Here the section on the wants of the audience should be re-read. Every idea should be chosen and worded so that it makes a specific want appeal. Careful analysis of the hearer should reveal what his desires, tastes, and ideals are. Out of the list given in Chapter III of the many possible want appeals, those should be selected which will prove most effective. This use of want appeal is, of course, most important in planning speeches which seek immediate belief or action, such as sales talks, talks on matters of policy, inspirational talks, and the like, but it should be given consideration even in planning oral reports and explanations. These have the *ultimate* end of favorable action of some sort, and consequently must be planned to appeal to the hearer's wants as well as to his reason.

The main ideas should be few. It is a mistake to present too many main ideas in a speech or interview. If, say, ten ideas are fired at the audience, the chances are that none of them will be remembered. They have come too rapidly, and with too little detailed development, to be impressive. Usually two, three, or four main ideas are all that can be made to "stick out" in the hearer's memory.

The order of main ideas. Main ideas should be presented in that order which the speaker deems will be most effective. Much thought must sometimes be given to this problem. If the hearer is uninterested or strongly opposed, it is usually necessary to open with a strongly persuasive or unusual idea, in order to get favorable attention. If the audience is favorable, this is not so important. In all cases, it is well to conclude with the most forceful and convincing idea, in order that there may be effective climax in the talk. Usually, therefore, the weaker ideas, or those which deal with objections, should be placed in the middle. At times, however, objections have already been advanced, and should be dealt with at the outset. Thus the problem of the order in which ideas shall be taken up depends largely on circumstances. Two things should be borne in mind: first, start strongly; second, finish strongly.[1]

Speech details. Having chosen ideas for the talk, the speaker must then select the details by which his ideas are to be made clear, convincing, or persuasive. The details upon which the speaker may draw for this purpose are, as we have seen, specific cases, comparisons, statistics, expert opinion, and reiteration. The number and kind of details to be used depends upon the hearer and the situation. The only rule that can be set down is that enough material must be introduced to achieve the specific purpose. Again, in selecting every detail, care must be taken to see that it fulfills two requirements: (1) that it supports the idea it is intended to develop, and (2) that it contains some element

[1] See Sandford and Yeager, *Principles of Effective Speaking*, chapter ix, for further remarks on the specific purpose and main ideas.

of interestingness for the hearer. Details which are not directly related to the main idea they purport to develop are of course useless; similarly, even if they meet this logical requirement, they will fail to aid the speaker if they do not in some way command interest.

Specific cases. An idea may be developed by the citation of specific cases. This is one of the best methods to use, because specific cases furnish direct evidence of the truth of the speaker's assertion. They reveal that he is not merely "talking theory," but that he has a real command of his subject. In arguing, for instance, that functional organization of industrial plants has proved itself superior to the old "military" organization, the citation of leading concerns in which this has been found to be true would be effective. Actual cases are always convincing evidence. An example of the use of specific cases in advertising is that of the motor-truck manufacturer who annually publishes a "roll call" of trucks which are in operation. Charles G. Dawes, in making the point that there is much waste in governmental operations due to lack of a central purchasing agency, used several specific cases of such waste to establish his point. Such examples are the most effective evidence a speaker can use. They bring concreteness and actuality into the talk.

Comparisons. Sometimes the speaker's ideas should be compared with a subject of a different kind. Comparisons utilize many of the elements of interestingness, particularly the familiar and the striking. The title of a well-known inspirational lecture, "Don't die on third," is a comparison between baseball and the need of sticking to a project or endeavor until it is finally successful. Russell Conwell's great lecture, "Acres of Diamonds," is based upon a comparison between an old Persian who sold his farm and went hunting for diamonds, when his own back yard was full of them, and men and women who cannot see opportunity in their immediate surroundings. In a speech to a group of new employees, one speaker starts by comparing the concern

and its employees to a family. In urging life insurance salesmen to keep an accurate record of prospects, Charles B. Stumes, of Chicago, used the following comparison:

> Mr. Loeb and I conduct our business the same as we would conduct a mercantile or manufacturing business. At the end of each month, we close our books. . . .

Bruce Barton used the story of Joseph, and how in a single generation he was forgotten by the people of Egypt, to illustrate the idea that advertisers must persist in their efforts to keep their names before the public. Comparisons are of great value, then, in all types of speeches. The speaker should seek constantly to build up his store of illustrative comparisons, and should practice using them in his talks and addresses.

Statistics. While, as a rule, statistics should be used sparingly, they are of great value in conveying condensed information and evidence. The speaker should simplify his presentation of statistics by using "round numbers" rather than painfully exact figures, whenever possible. If many statistics must be used, as is sometimes the case, the presentation should be clarified by the use of charts, tables, or printed matter.

Expert opinion. The views of experts on your subject may be quoted to substantiate your opinions. It is necessary, however, to be sure that your hearer recognizes the person quoted as a real authority. Quotations should be brief and accurate, and should be used sparingly. Rarely should an entire argument rest upon expert opinion. Testimony should be used to corroborate your own arguments and evidence, rather than to prove a point by itself.

Reiteration. The main ideas of a speech should be kept before the audience by reiteration. Each idea should be stated clearly to begin with, and it may be repeated in the same, or in different words, after it has been developed by specific cases, comparisons, statistics, or expert opinion. Reiteration also has its place in the concluding sentences of a speech or interview, so that the main ideas may be made

to stand out prominently. Most speakers underestimate the importance of pounding in ideas by reiteration, and are consequently ineffective. A judicious amount of restatement should always be used.[2]

Attention-getting introductions. After the main ideas and their details have been planned thoroughly, the speaker should turn his attention to the problem of the introduction. Whether for a formal speech or an informal conference, the opening remarks furnish a golden opportunity to arouse the interest of the hearers. The speaker should strive to make especially good use of the elements of interestingness in order to accomplish this. The first paragraph should usually be planned to touch directly on the vital, the unusual, the familiar, the concrete, or the striking. Attention having thus been gained, the speaker, if he thinks it desirable, may state his purpose and proceed at once to the discussion of his main ideas. Thus the introduction may have two functions: (1) to arouse interest, and (2) to state the speaker's purpose.

The simplest problem comes when interest is already present. Then all that is necessary is a simple statement of purpose, or a statement of the ideas to be discussed. When this is practicable, it is a great advantage to the speaker, who can plunge at once into his discussion. Thus he avoids delay. He comes to the point at once.

Eagle Freshwater, editor of the *Furniture Record,* began a talk on installment selling thus:

> We are together tonight for the first heart-to-heart talk of the Institute on the particular question that is fretting the retail world today, the subject to which we devoted the afternoon session—installment selling

When interest must be aroused, a striking specific case or comparison may furnish a means of beginning. Concreteness is gained in this manner. The "funny story," however, should be avoided, unless it actually illustrates the point the speaker wishes to make. Striking comparison was

[2] For a detailed discussion of reiteration, specific cases, comparisons, statistics, and expert opinion, see Sandford and Yeager, *opus cit.,* chap. x.

used by Vice-President Hugh D. Hart of the Penn Mutual Life Insurance Company in opening his speech on "Your Major Asset—Time," at a convention of representatives:

> My first impulse to think seriously about the subject of Time came to me in a rather peculiar way. I was going through the British Museum, when my attention was called to an old mummy, which the archaeologists estimated had slumbered in the sands of Egypt for several thousand years. As I looked into the dried face of that ancient citizen of the Pharaohs, somehow there dawned upon me a sense of the shortness of human life. For I contrasted the few fleeting years that he had "strutted his little hour" upon the Egyptian stage with the many centuries since that he had rested in the Valley of the Nile. And I could hardly restrain a momentary resentment against Nature for having bequeathed, out of the infinity of time, so niggardly a portion for man to spend upon the earth.

Interest may be aroused, not only by striking comparisons or cases, but by the use of arguments to show the importance of the speaker's subject to the audience. So, too, authorities may be quoted, or statistics given, or questions asked, to get immediate attention. The problem is the same—to select some fact or idea sufficiently important or novel to arouse interest. If the speaker fails to accomplish this in the first moments of his talk, he will be handicapped throughout.

Whether the specific purpose or main ideas of the speech should be revealed in the introduction depends upon circumstances. If the audience is not opposed to the speaker, a clear statement of what he is to discuss is of advantage, for hearers are able to follow the divisions of his speech more easily. On the other hand, a statement of purpose and main ideas sometimes antagonizes the audience and causes it to lose interest.

The speaker must avoid triteness, lengthiness, and "false leads" in his introduction. The best way to avoid triteness is to use the elements of interestingness and to seek out some striking comparison, specific case, quotation, or question for an opening. Lengthiness must be avoided at all costs. The introduction is just the front door to the speech, and it

should not occupy much more ground than a good front door. By "false leads" are meant statements which lead the audience to believe certain things are to be discussed which the speaker later does not touch upon.

Forceful conclusions. The conclusion of a speech should be characterized by brevity and force. Here is opportunity for effective reiteration of main ideas. This may be done either by formal summary, or by making use of comparisons, cases, opinions, statistics, or questions. By some means the leading thoughts of the speech must be impressed on the hearers. There is additional opportunity for an appeal for favorable action or belief. Whatever is said in the conclusion, the speaker must be at his best. He must conclude vigorously. He must clinch the impression that his speech has made. He should touch the highest moral ground of his talk, and he should make the most compelling appeal to motives for action. Having summarized, formally or informally, and made an appeal for belief or action, he should stop. "Close with a snap" is excellent advice.[3]

Outlining the speech. For most speeches, and for all important conferences, it is desirable to prepare by means of making an outline. The specific purpose and main ideas, together with the details which are to be used, should be jotted down. A brief outline of the introduction and conclusion should be made. By making an outline, the speaker provides himself a bird's-eye view of what he intends to say, and can study his phrasing and arrangement.

Different speakers use different types of outlines, from simple "catchwords" on the back of a card to detailed speech plans. The inexperienced speaker will find it to his advantage to use a detailed outline. Suggestions for making such an outline follow:

1. Divide the outline into four parts: Heading, Introduction, Discussion, and Conclusion.

[3] See Sandford and Yeager, *opus cit.*, chap. xi, for additional remarks on the introduction and conclusion.

2. In the Heading, write down:
   a) Title of Speech.
   b) Type of Speech (Oral report, sales talk, etc.).
   c) Specific Purpose.
3. In the Introduction, write down:
   a) Short sentence summarizing what you plan to say to get attention and interest.
   b) Short sentence or sentences summarizing what you plan to say to state your purpose and main ideas.
4. In the Discussion, write down:
   a) The first main idea, and under it, using subordinate headings, the details you intend to use, stated briefly in sentence form.
   b) The other main ideas and their development.
5. In the Conclusion, write down:
   a) What you intend to say by way of summary.
   b) What you intend to say by way of appeal.
6. In outlining the Introduction, Discussion, and Conclusion, use the following system of symbols and indentations:
   I. (*Main Idea, stated in brief sentence form*)
      A. (*Subdivision of Main Idea; sentence form*)
         1. (*Detail*)
         2. (*Detail*)
            a) (*Development of detail*)
            b) (*Development of detail*)
      B. (*Subdivision of Main Idea; sentence form*)
         .....etc.....
7. In the left-hand margin, make notations of the various elements of interestingness, suggestion, and imagery you plan to use.

An outline of this kind, worked out in detail, is a basis for revision and reorganization of the speech. It enables one to look at his speech as a whole, and to see where improvements may be made. Throwing one's talk into an outline aids clear-cut organization, and assists the speaker in fixing his main ideas in mind.

SUMMARY

In this chapter, we have studied the structure of a speech or interview, and have seen that it consists of the following

parts: (1) specific purpose, (2) main ideas, (3) speech details, (4) introduction, and (5) conclusion. A clear understanding of the function of each part of the speech, and of its relation to the other parts, is essential to good speaking, public or private.

VI

EFFECTIVE ORAL PRESENTATION

Giving ideas acceptance value. Fundamentals come first. Sense of communication. How to become communicative. Sincerity. Animation. Importance of health. Platform and interview conduct. Observations of conventions. Good appearance essential. Greeting the hearer. Bearing during the talk. Undesirable mannerisms. Adaptation to hearer. Carrying the hearer along. Concluding the speech. Developing pleasing utterance. Improvement practicable. Breathing a great vocal secret. Clear word-formation. Pronunciation. Preparing speeches for presentation. The extempore method. Extempore method in conference.

Attractively wrapped package goods sell better than the same articles in bulk. The store with a pleasing display window attracts more customers than the establishment with obsolete entrances. An automobile of pleasing line and artistic finish gets more buyers than one lacking these qualities. Goods effectively presented, are, in fact, better goods, by the verdict of applied economics. So it is with the speaker. He who, in private interview or in public address, presents his ideas directly, forcefully, and in good form is a better speaker than the man who presents equally good ideas in a slouchy and ineffective manner. *Effective oral presentation gives words a high acceptance value.* The importance of this element of good speaking cannot be overlooked. No one who has had practical experience will deny that the manner in which things are said is sometimes as important as what is said.

Giving ideas acceptance value. When we say that a man has a fine personality, we often mean that by his bearing, action, and vocal quality he attracts people to himself. The way in which he states his ideas has compelling force. He gets results. On the other hand, the man who is indistinct, vague, lifeless, and indirect in his manner discounts himself. He gets nowhere, even though his ideas may be good. He

lacks personality. Viewed in this light, effective oral presentation is well worth cultivating as a business and social asset. It is an integral part of speech efficiency, equally important in public and private speaking. If its fundamentals are well understood, they may be developed by self-help.

FUNDAMENTALS COME FIRST

If you will ask yourself, "Why is Jones a star salesman?" "Why is Brown an inspiring executive?" "Why is Smith a brilliant manager?" you will realize that, in part, at least, these men are successful because in their manner of talking certain fundamental qualities appear. Regardless of the differences which may exist between them in surface mannerisms and appearance, they are probably alike in certain characteristics which make up what we call personality. It is the possession of these fundamental qualities which makes them successful in their presentation of ideas. These are the qualities which every speaker should seek to attain and to develop.

Sense of communication. Every good speaker has a strong *sense of communication.* When he talks, he seems to be directing everything he says to his hearer or audience. He grips attention because every one of his hearers feels that he is being directly addressed. Not only does he *look* at individuals, but the tones of his voice, the attitude of his body, and his facial expression indicate a strong desire to convey his ideas. He does not "think inward" for something to say; he "thinks outward." He is direct in manner. His whole being is devoted to the task of communicating ideas. This quality, sense of communication, is the most important single asset in oral presentation.

Speakers who lack this quality seem to be "talking to themselves." They are lacking in the alertness, directness, and general aliveness of communicative talkers. Frequently they look off into space, down at the floor, out of windows—

everywhere but at their hearer. They lack that sense of personal contact and of intimate conversation which distinguishes the good speaker. They ordinarily fail to hold attention, in spite of the fact that their ideas may be quite interesting and important. They therefore fail to "get across."

How to become communicative. The first step in cultivating a sense of communication is to realize the importance of your hearer. It is to influence him that you are talking. It is for effect upon his views or conduct that you have planned your talk. His reactions to what you say are all-important. Therefore, as you plan your speech, as you rehearse it, and during its actual presentation, keep your mind on the hearer. Your ideas must be so well organized that you are free to devote all your energies to the task of influencing the hearer.

In the second place, use the physical evidences of communication. Eye-directness is important. Look at your hearer, or if there are several, look at individuals from time to time, not to stare them out of countenance, but to keep in contact with them. Usually it is well to lean slightly forward toward hearer or audience, not away from them. Your facial expression and general bodily action should indicate that you are interested in your hearers. The tones of your voice should be those of direct, emphatic, friendly talk.

In the third place, cultivate the habit of judging the hearer's reaction to what you say. Observe his bearing. If he is remote, inert, or toying with watch chain or papers, you are not being direct and interesting enough, and a change in manner or in what you are saying is necessary. If a stiff, unfriendly attitude relaxes and the listener pays eager attention to your words, you are doubtless on the high road to success. The more he attends to you, to the exclusion of all else, the more you may be encouraged.

The speaker who would become effective, then, must develop a strong sense of communication and a keen appre-

ciation of the importance of the audience. This quality underlies effective oral presentation.

Sincerity. The second great quality which makes speaking successful is sincerity, the intense belief of the speaker in what he is saying, his enthusiasm for his subject and his aim, and his consequent ability to arouse in others the same feelings. Sincerity shows itself in the ring of the voice, the vigor of the bodily bearing, and the responsiveness of the facial muscles to the speaker's ideas. It is a contagious quality. The man who thoroughly believes in his subject communicates his enthusiasm to his hearers.

Presumably every salesman and executive who is at all successful possesses sincerity and enthusiasm. He has a strong faith in the value of the work he is doing, in the company for which he works, and in the goods he is making or selling. If not, he had better change his occupation, for he can never achieve the highest success. However, in the daily routine of office management or of selling or manufacturing, it is but natural that enthusiasm may ebb and sincerity be dulled. For that reason one must from time to time revive his enthusiasm. Great companies recognize this when they hold annual dinners, salesmen's meetings, and conventions. Inspirational speakers are brought in to restore the faith and enthusiasm which daily routine has blunted. The individual should likewise attempt to keep up his enthusiasm. Reflection upon the essential value of the service he is rendering, on his hopes for advancement, and on the desire to assist his colleagues will be of assistance.

Before every important interview or public address, the speaker must regenerate his enthusiasm. What this quality will do is well illustrated by "Jack" Lauer, a successful insurance salesman:

> I was fortunate in witnessing what I considered a real sales demonstration. While touring east I visited a boys' camp where ages ranged from five to fifteen years. The owner of this camp had an assistant director who had charge of everything. The day I was there was the last day, and naturally they wanted each one

of the boys back next year, and also desired their friends to know what a wonderful camp it was.

They were all singing camp songs, being led by the hired director. There was quite a bit of enthusiasm in the singing, but not enough for "Pop." He jumped out of his chair, and did he ever put "pep" into that meeting? When he finished he had those little fellows singing those songs twice as loud as before, yelling and cheering, which convinced me he was a good salesman. He filled those boys with camp spirit and a desire to be there next year, the same as we must fill our prospect with a desire to have life insurance. I received a great thrill myself and would have signed for the next year.[1]

Something of the enthusiasm and sincerity which this boys' camp leader put into his meeting must be present in every talk, if the speaker is to attain the gratifying response from his hearer that he desires.

Animation. The third great fundamental is animation. By animation we do not necessarily mean great outward activity of the body, nor loud tones of voice. What is meant, rather, is a general alertness and aliveness. The speaker must be "on his toes," physically as well as mentally, able to cope with situations as they arise, able to put in a telling blow at the right time, and full of an abundance of energy which he may use to influence his hearer. A speech or interview presented in a dull, lifeless way is almost sure to fail. Good speaking requires an expenditure of motor power fully equal to that of playing a strenuous set of tennis or a vigorous eighteen holes of golf.

Generally, speakers do not realize the importance of this element of effectiveness. Most people are inclined to "take it easy" in their talking, especially in interviews, and to avoid exertion. There is a need, in the case of nine speakers out of ten, to stimulate physical activity. Only when active is the speaker in full command of his powers.

Salesmen know that when they become "keyed up" physically they are able to make more sales than when they are "tired" and sluggish. The common experience, in start-

[1] The Penn Mutual *News Letter*, Vol. 10, No. 10, pp. 33-34.

ing out to interview prospects early in the morning, is that the first interview does not succeed because of the lifelessness of the speaker; but that as the day progresses he becomes awakened and energetic and usually does better work. Hence there is a dread of starting out "cold" to seek business. If, instead of starting out "cold," the salesman would take a brisk walk, get his body awake and active, and possibly even hold a private rehearsal of his sales talk, he would find that the fear of the first morning interview had disappeared. Stimulation of physical activity would have solved the problem for him. On the same principle, many actors who have to come on the stage in parts demanding great excitement or emotion "work themselves up" to the proper physical pitch by vigorous exercise just before their entrance.

The speaker should follow the example of the good salesman and the actor, and before an important conference or speech should see to it that he is fully awake and alert. He should walk briskly about, swing his arms, talk vigorously; in short, do anything to get the proper muscular tone. While speaking, he should not hesitate to stimulate vigor by similar methods. Bodily activity is a necessity. Any action or movement that aids in cultivating it is a help toward effectiveness. The speaker who neglects activity of this kind, before and during his speech, is liable to be lifeless and inert in manner, and to lack the dynamic power which leads to success.

Importance of health. Without good health, the fundamental qualities of communicativeness, sincerity, and animation can hardly be possessed in the highest degree. The magnetic personality which makes words most effective is, to a large extent, based upon radiant health and fit condition. In 1910, the writer heard William Jennings Bryan in a lyceum speech. The Great Commoner was then still in possession of the physical powers which had helped him to sway conventions and meetings. His presentation was forceful, attractive, and persuasive. Fifteen years later, in the spring

of 1925, the writer heard Bryan again, just a few months before his death in Dayton, Tennessee. Quite obviously, the famous orator had deteriorated in physical fitness. He had lost in attractiveness, in the *timbre* of his voice, and in his power to arouse enthusiasm. It was as if an old man were making a great effort to approach his former ability, and in vain.

Thus the qualities required for successful speaking are, in a measure, those required for general success. One who is not in good health may, it is true, make one or two supreme efforts in speaking, but he cannot sustain the daily efficiency which is necessary in dealing with his fellow man.

PLATFORM AND INTERVIEW CONDUCT

Observation of conventions. The tactful speaker, in addition to possessing the important fundamentals discussed above, is observant of the conventions of platform and interview conduct. He conforms to good taste and usage in the matters of dress, bearing, actions during the talk, pronunciation and use of the voice generally, and in his treatment of conferee or audience. By observing the rules of good taste he makes a favorable impression on his hearers, and consequently gives additional acceptance value to what he says. He never plays the part of the traditional "bull in the china shop." He is adaptable, modest, and persuasive.

Good appearance essential. Whether for public speech or private interview, the speaker should be well dressed and well groomed. One successful salesman expresses it in this manner: "Along with the verbal approach, necessarily, is your appearance, *which must command respect.* I do think personal appearance is a decided requisite, and cannot be overemphasized. You must look prosperous, as no man likes to feel he is doing business with anyone who is not a 'top-notcher,' and a 'top-notcher' always looks the part." A good rule to follow in the choice of patterns and in the use of accessories is that no item of clothing should call particular

attention to itself. Extremes of fashion should ordinarily be avoided, likewise eccentricity or flashiness of dress. The loud checked suit, the bright red necktie, and the synthetic diamond stickpin are all relics of the past, so far as good salesmanship is concerned. Richness and good tailoring, rather than gaudiness, should be sought, and an effort made to attain quiet harmony of texture and color in the ensemble. Not only should one wear good clothes, but one should be neatly turned out. An unshined pair of shoes will defeat a hundred-dollar suit, and an unshaven face or mussed-up hair will prevail in the battle for attention over the finest of linen. Leading business firms enforce the requirement that their employees who deal with the public shall make a good appearance in all respects.

Greeting the hearer. In public speaking, one should greet the audience in a quiet and businesslike way. Upon being introduced, the speaker should walk to the front of the platform, look over the audience for a moment, and then address them, "Ladies and Gentlemen," or "Members of the Manufacturers' Association," or briefly in some other appropriate way. The manner should be friendly and animated, but unhurried. The speaker should show interest in his hearers, and be sure to establish good communication with them by his greeting, so that his introduction will command the best attention.

In opening a private conference, the manner and words used by the speaker depend largely upon his relations with the conferee and the circumstances under which the conference is begun. If unacquainted with the conferee, the speaker should use a politely formal greeting, such as, "Good morning, Mr. Smith. I am Mr. Brown," and he should maintain an erect and confident position, being careful to avoid a bad impression at the start. If on friendly terms, the speaker may be less formal, not, however, going too far in this direction, nor presuming upon merely casual acquaintance. If the conferee is the speaker's superior in the organization, a proper degree of formality and respect should be

shown. It is never well to presume on the good nature of the conferee by being effusively cordial in opening remarks or manner. In beginning almost daily conferences with his superiors in the university, the writer has found it of advantage to pause at a distance from the conferee's desk, greet him cordially and respectfully, and await the invitation to be seated before proceeding. In general, in opening interviews, it is better to err slightly on the side of too much formality than to go too far in the other direction.

If the speaker is given any choice in the matter, by circumstances or otherwise, he should take a seat reasonably near his conferee, and usually at the side of the conferee's desk rather than across it. This enables him to conduct the interview in a quieter and more intimate way.

After greetings have been exchanged and the conferrer is seated, he should state his purpose, or the subject which he wishes to discuss, tersely and clearly. Time should not be lost in irrelevant discussion. Busy executives appreciate the thoughtfulness of a man who comes to the point at once.[2]

Bearing during the talk. Generally speaking, the bearing of a man during a speech or interview should reveal his possession of the fundamental qualities of communicativeness, sincerity, and animation. He should maintain eye-contact with his hearers, should be active physically, without "tearing a passion to tatters," and should reveal in every way his belief in what he is saying. Courtesy, geniality, and friendliness for the hearer should be displayed, and his reactions noted.

How much geniality to show is at times a problem. It is not always a good sign when the *conferee* is excessively genial, for he may be adopting this manner in order to get rid of the conferrer in an easy manner. The speaker should not let these tactics divert him from his original purpose and arguments, and should ordinarily be conservative in yielding to the extreme mood of his conferee. On the other hand, if

[2] At times, however, the need of using indirect suggestion in order to get favorable attention may modify this rule. See Chapter IV.

the conferee is excessively curt and brusque, the speaker cannot afford to let this lead him into unpoliteness or anger. He should be direct and forceful, but not pugnacious.

The speaker's physical bearing is important. Whether sitting or standing, the body should be held comfortably erect. Leaning far over to one side, slumping down, and similar indications of lack of alertness should be avoided. A slight inclination of the body toward hearer or audience is desirable, and as mentioned before, it aids directness.

The whole body should be active during speech. This does not mean that there should be unrestrained movements; quite the contrary. But lack of movement is disastrous. Vigorous action gets a motor reaction in the hearer which keeps him awake and interested. The speaker, in formal public address, may use various gestures of the hand and arms, such as the index finger, open hand, and fist gestures. These are ordinarily not used, in their complete form, in conversation, except at points of unusual emphasis. Vigorous nods of the head, punctuating the speaker's remarks, as well as general activity of the whole body, should be present both in public address and in conversation.

Undesirable mannerisms. The trained public speaker is not liable to commit the offenses of leaning on the rostrum, holding his hands behind him, clasping them in front of him, or of carrying them negligently in his pockets. Neither is he liable to permit random and useless movements to interfere with his audience-contact. Similar mannerisms are undesirable in private conference. Too many people destroy their effectiveness, by sitting on the conferee's desk, or leaning heavily upon it. Others use desk or chair as a convenient parking place for their feet. Others seat themselves and proceed to swing their feet backward and forward during the interview. Others fiddle with watch chain or paper. Others offend by leaning so far toward the conferee that they almost push him out of his chair. It should be sufficient to say, in treating of such breaches of good taste, that they call attention to themselves, mark the perpetrator as a person

untrained in demeanor, and spoil the effect of his words.

Adaptation to hearer. A general adaptation of the manner of the speaker to his hearer's needs and tastes is desirable. This is somewhat more difficult in public speech than in private conversation. However, the public speaker may adopt a rate of speech, tone of voice, and general bearing which seems to please and to hold the attention of his audience. The size of the room and the number of hearers affects the speaker's manner considerably. Usually, the larger the room and the audience, the more slowly the speaker should talk, and the more formal he should be with respect to platform bearing and actions. Observation of the behavior of the audience will be a guide. If any of the signs of inattention are observed, the speaker should make some change in his method of presentation. A slower, or a more rapid rate may be needed, more or less force may be demanded, greater directness may be the remedy. The skillful speaker, who has a good sense of communication, speedily discovers what rate and manner are desirable.

In conference, there is a great need of adaptation of manner to that of the conferee. If the conferee is slow-spoken, quiet, and reserved, he will ordinarily be antagonized by a rapid rate, noisy manner, and too much familiarity. If he is of the nervous, high-tension type, rapid and incisive in speech and swift in his reactions, the speaker should endeavor to adjust his manner to correspond. Rate, volume, physical action, and general manner should be made to harmonize. During the first few sentences of the interview, the speaker should observe the hearer and endeavor to adapt himself to his preferences and habits. It is usually a mistake to try to rush a phlegmatic man or to hold back a nervous one. As stated before, excessive geniality or curtness on the part of the hearer should be followed only to a limited extent by the speaker.

Adaptation does not imply slavish imitation or mimicry. It simply means that the speaker must so modify his habitual manner as not to offend the hearer. Tact in doing this is of

extreme importance and may spell the difference between success and failure. If the two personalities in the interview jar upon each other, there is little hope of a favorable outcome.

Carrying the hearer along. Having established favorable contact, the speaker should then endeavor to carry the hearer with him and to win enthusiastic approval for his ideas. As he presents his talk, he should grow in communicativeness and enthusiasm and become more animated. There must be a climax in the presentation of ideas, just as there is in the ideas themselves. When the audience seems to grow more interested, or the hearer more attentive, the speaker should seize his advantage and use all his resources to clinch the favorable impression. Almost every speech or interview, assuming that the speaker's material has been well planned, has a "turning point," which the speaker must detect and utilize. If the crisis is allowed to pass without being used, it will be difficult to bring the hearer to a receptive mood again. Negative thoughts may intrude, or inertia reassert itself. Therefore, when the hearer's behavior shows that he is favorably disposed, the speaker should at once attempt to bring him to a decision, usually, as will be explained in the chapters on the personal conference, by means of a preplanned closing appeal, and with the utmost effectiveness in presentation.

In overcoming the distractions caused by interruptions, such as telephone calls, objections raised by the hearer, disturbances in the audience, and the like, the speaker will need to exert himself especially, not only by having a tactful sentence with which to resume, but by especial interestingness in manner. The ground lost must be regained as rapidly as possible.

The problem of carrying the hearer along until he reaches a receptive mood is partly, of course, one of what to say, and thus will be discussed in other chapters; but it is also a problem of presentation, to which the speaker must devote all the communicativeness, sincerity, and animation he possesses, together with the ability to recognize the "big

moment" at which favorable response is easy to secure. Practice in the personal conference and in public speaking will render the speaker more skillful in this important matter.

Concluding the speech. In concluding a public speech, presentation should ordinarily reach its greatest effectiveness. If the main ideas are summarized, this should be done distinctly and impressively. The speaker should be unhurried, but at the height of his forcefulness and communicativeness. Sometimes a good concluding appeal, given with all the physical and emotional force of the speaker, will turn apparent defeat into victory.

In closing a conference, whether successful, unsuccessful, or undetermined, the speaker should maintain his courtesy and geniality, and should not take too much time. His manner will be partly determined, of course, by the apparent desires of the conferee, although here, too, a determined final appeal may get results. Promptly upon the termination of the interview, the speaker should rise, say a word or two of thanks for the time and attention given him, and withdraw. Even though the conference may have been unsuccessful, he will desire to leave a favorable personal impression, so that in future contacts he will have the hearer's good will.

DEVELOPING PLEASING UTTERANCE

Improvement practicable. It is a relatively simple matter to improve the quality of the speaking voice and the clearness of enunciation. A little attention given to these details of pleasing utterance is well worth while. A well-modulated voice pleases the hearer's ear and makes him more receptive to what the speaker has to say, and words distinctly uttered and correctly pronounced mark the speaker as a man of culture and intelligence.

Breathing a great vocal secret. Although the size and conformation of the vocal organs have much to do with the nature of the voice, one can get a much better tone by proper use of them. Breathing is the secret of good vocal quality.

Most people do not inhale often enough or deeply enough to give their voices the full volume and richness which would otherwise be theirs. In taking air into the lungs, the speaker should feel the greatest expansion in the region of the waist. The diaphragm and abdominal muscles should function. In exhaling air, these muscles should initiate the movement, working much like the handles of a bellows. An adequate and frequently replenished supply of air, coupled with control of exhalation, is the first requisite of good tone. Then, in the process of forming tones, the throat and neck muscles should be kept relaxed, so that the tone can come out unimpeded. Throat constriction must be avoided. The mouth should be well opened. If these suggestions are followed, a fuller, richer tone will be the result.

Clear word formation. Clearness of word formation is highly desirable. Nothing is more annoying than to have people mumble words, slur their consonants, and in general fail to be distinct and clear. Most talkers do not *mould* their words sufficiently as they utter them. The teeth, tongue, and lips have important parts to play in forming consonant sounds. Activity of these organs, to the end of distinctness, is necessary. The beginning and ending of syllables should be distinct and sharp. Words uttered with precise enunciation are like coins fresh from the mint. They are readily understood.

Pronunciation. People of the better class, at least, are antagonized by the speaker who habitually mispronounces words of everyday use. There is little excuse for delinquency in this respect, for the dictionary is available to everyone. The diacritical marks used in dictionaries indicate the pronunciation of each vowel and consonant, and also show the syllable or syllables which should be accented. Another valuable guide to pronunciation is the usage of well-educated people. The customs of such people set the standard for each locality. To digress from the accepted standard in pronunciation is as inexcusable as to make serious grammatical errors.

PREPARING SPEECHES FOR PRESENTATION

Speeches may be delivered *impromptu,* that is, without any previous preparation; *extempore,* that is, with preparation beforehand of the ideas and facts to be included; or *memorized,* that is, written out and learned word for word. Of these the best method for most occasions is the extempore one. Impromptu speaking is at best an emergency measure, although now and then occasions arise which demand it. Memorizing involves considerable labor, and one who learns a speech by rote faces the danger of forgetting. The extempore method permits detailed planning of ideas and details by means of an outline, and it is the most rapid means by which a speech may be fixed in mind. Moreover, it may be adapted to informal conversations as well as to speeches.

Using the extempore method. The following hints will prove useful in learning a speech by the extempore method:

1. Write out a good outline, as specified in Chapter V.
2. Read through this outline, fixing the main points of the introduction, main ideas, and conclusion in mind.
3. Stand up, and just as if you were delivering a speech, talk through the outline aloud, using the best words you find available at the moment to express your ideas.
4. After doing this, re-read the outline, and try to give your speech without referring to it. If you become confused, do not stop to consult your notes, but work ahead somehow to the next main idea. Finish your speech without interruption.
5. Consult your outline to see what mistakes or omissions were made, and repeat the delivery of your speech.
6. Always practice the speech as if you were in the presence of an audience. Get someone to listen to you, if possible. Watch your position and action. Habits formed during practice will stay with you.
7. Repeat this process until you have the speech well in mind. Several repetitions, scattered over a period of several days, will make for the most effective presentation.

Persistent practice in using the extempore method will soon produce quickness and efficiency. While at first the

process may seem cumbersome, it is worth while to master it. Eventually the speaker will be able to recall his main ideas and details after once setting them down in outline form, and the problem of memory will then have no difficulties for him.

Extempore method in conference. The extempore method may be applied without much modification to the problems of personal conference. For an important interview, it is desirable to set down in outline form at least the main ideas to be presented, and their supporting details.

With this outline in mind, the speaker may rehearse the principal things he intends to say. Such practice will be found invaluable in the actual conference, for it will enable him to recall the ideas he has planned to present, and to avoid too much deviation from his original scheme of action.

In general, the extempore method develops the habit of thinking in terms of a few main points, and of relating details to those points. It therefore tends to clarify and systematize one's mental processes, and to give them order and definiteness.

SUMMARY

Ideas are given their highest acceptance value when they are presented effectively. Oral effectiveness depends primarily upon the speaker's possession of the fundamental qualities of communicativeness, sincerity, and animation. These qualities are of equal importance in public and private speaking, and should be developed by everyone who wishes to excel by means of the spoken word. The speaker should not only possess these qualities, but should conform to the dictates of good taste and usage in matters of dress and platform and interview demeanor. Further matters of importance in oral presentation are adaptation to hearer or audience, and a knowledge of how to carry an audience to the point of favorable action. A pleasing voice, distinct

enunciation, and proper pronunciation are assets. Finally, the extempore method is the best means of fixing a speech or an interview in mind.[1]

[1] For further details relating to oral presentation, see Sandford and Yeager, *Principles of Effective Speaking,* chaps. xvii-xx.

VII

FINDING MATERIAL

Need of business facts. Sources of material. Personal knowledge. Observation. Experimentation. Interviews and letters. Reading. Using a library. General guides and indexes. The card catalogue. Reader's guide. Public affairs information service. Industrial arts index. Five hundred business books. 1,600 business books. 2,400 business books. 2,600 business books. Reference books. General encyclopedias. Special business encyclopedias. Dictionaries. Atlases and maps. General yearbooks. Special business yearbooks. Biographical material. Periodical literature. General periodicals. Special business periodicals. Special publications. Associations. Corporations. Government reports and documents.

One of our colleagues recently remarked that he believed that it was just as necessary to give students in any subject a knowledge of the sources of material of that subject, as to present them with concrete facts in the regular class hour. This chapter is planned to give the reader a knowledge of the sources of business facts. Within the spatial limits of a business book or within the time limits of the classroom, it is quite impossible to deal concretely with every fact or opinion connected with the subject matter of the book or of the course. The teacher of accounting or of marketing cannot deal with every detail of the subject within the limits of one course. No more can the writer of a textbook on management hope to exhaust the subject in one book. In fact, one course or book on accounting, or any other business subject, can do little more than open up the subject and show the student its importance. A part of the work of every teacher or textbook is to indicate the source material of that subject.

NEED OF BUSINESS FACTS

The business man is constantly confronted with the problem of adding to his stock of facts. Unusual problems fre-

quently arise, and he often finds reference to his usual sources unproductive of satisfactory information. Every successful business man must know the sources of information in the field of his own particular job.

Information is nowhere, in the operation of any business organization, more important than in the speaking done by the members of that organization. When secretaries prepare reports for their executives they must have the facts. When a production manager makes a report on the efficiency of a particular type of manufacturing equipment, he must have definite information about initial cost, cost of operation, labor cost, space required, durability, service for repairs, degree of skill required to operate, training of operatives, experiences of other manufacturers with the same type of machine, and other details. He must have similar information about the equipment in use, in order to make comparisons. When all this information has been obtained he may then want to compare the whole process of manufacture with that used in another similar factory. All these facts must be known before accurate decisions can be made.

When the president decides that the company should enter a new market, the sales manager must secure a vast amount of information about the new territory, including the number of people in it, the probable number of prospects for their products, the exact type of product desired, the best methods for bringing their products to the attention of these prospective buyers, the probable sales cost, and so on. Before his speaking on the project can be effective he must make a detailed analysis. In a similar manner, all business and professional speaking, if it is to be effective, must be based upon a solid foundation of facts.

Since fact finding is so important and at the same time so troublesome, we are indicating here the principal sources of information on business and professional subjects. We cannot give an exhaustive bibliography in these few pages, but it is expected that the reader will find here a guide to the very comprehensive literature of business. By following the

suggestions we have indicated, the reader will be able to find information on almost any business or professional subject needed.

Recognizing the importance of making specialized business information available for their employees, many progressive business organizations have established private business libraries. Many of them are in charge of trained librarians. Hundreds of these libraries can now be found. The whole idea behind the private business library is to render service to the organization. It attempts to supply the information needs of everyone connected with the organization by providing the best printed material, suited to their requirements.

SOURCES OF MATERIAL

The common sources of material are *personal knowledge, observation, experimentation, interviews, letters,* and *reading*. Answers to perplexing problems, on all phases of business and professional work, can be found if the problem has been solved by others or if it can be solved by observation or experimentation. This, of course, assumes that if the problem has been solved, the discoverer is willing to divulge the solution. There are many secret processes of manufacture, and the discoverers, for business reasons, refuse to make them public. In cases of this sort the answer must be found by observation or experimentation, if it is to be found at all. When confronted by any business problem a business man should first seek the answer in his own knowledge. If the answer is not to be found there, he can then select the other source or sources which he believes will most likely supply the information he wants.

Personal knowledge. Frequently people will rush to a library, when a difficult problem presents itself, without stopping to examine their own minds. The first thing to do is to find out what our own past experience can tell us. Very often hours of laborious library work may be saved by think-

ing oneself empty first. Then, should the thinking fail to produce the solution, other sources may be tried. If thinking fails to give the solution it will at least give a clear analysis of the problem and indicate exactly what must be acquired elsewhere.

Observation. When the cost accountant tries to determine the cost of a product, the larger part of his information is usually acquired through observation. He observes the process of manufacture from the time the raw material goes into the factory until the completed product comes out and is ready for the market. He times the various operations and determines the cost of each. If he is trying to reduce costs, he determines whether or not time may be saved on any part of the process or whether less skilled and lower paid workmen can do the work as well. He determines whether or not new equipment would help. He carefully observes the process and gets most of his information at first hand.

Information acquired through observation becomes a part of our direct experiences; that is, acquired through the senses of the body. What we directly experience, that is, what we see, hear, feel, taste, and smell, is frequently more valuable to us than what we indirectly experience. Indirect experiences are those acquired through talking and writing to others and through reading.

The salesman of a concern designing and manufacturing equipment for reclaiming solvents, lost through evaporation in manufacturing processes, found that what he said to his prospects about his equipment seemed so unreal as to smack of Aladdin's lamp. He found that the sales talk alone was insufficient to secure understanding and conviction. He therefore devised a miniature model of the machine and carried it with him in trunks, for demonstration purposes. He would then set up his model in a room where solvents were being used and, before the eyes of the prospect, reclaim a quart or two, taking it right out of the air. Making it possible for his prospects to observe, vastly increased his effectiveness. The prospect's observation of the machine in

operation showed him exactly how the reclaiming was accomplished.

When confronted with any business problem, if it is possible to do so, use observation to inform yourself of the facts.

Experimentation. Another source of direct experience is experimentation. When the problem cannot be solved directly by observation and when information cannot be secured by discussion with others or by reading, it must be solved experimentally, if it is to be solved at all. The chemical engineer who designed the equipment mentioned in our discussion of observation had to acquire most of his information through experimentation. His own personal knowledge and information acquired from observation, from interviews, letters, and reading was a help, but since it was a new idea, many facts could not be learned except through experimentation. Business organizations frequently maintain well-equipped experimental laboratories and employ high-salaried specialists to discover new facts about their businesses.

Experimentation is not only used in the laboratory but may also be used in the office and the factory. When a new policy is proposed, its merits may frequently be determined only by trying it out. If the chief of the planning department believes that efficiency may be increased by a rerouting of material, he will often try out the plan, for a short period, before making the change permanent. If the office manager decides to purchase another brand of typewriters, he may buy one machine, to try out, before making larger purchases. Experimentation is a most valuable source of business and professional information.

Interviews and letters. While observation and experimentation furnish direct experiences, the final three sources of material can supply indirect experiences only. Interviews, letters, and reading can supply facts already discovered by others and are therefore very valuable sources of material. Very often much time devoted to observation and experimentation can be saved by consulting one or more of these

indirect sources. It is obviously useless to spend time perfecting a marketing plan when the problem has already been effectively solved by others. In such a case the business man's problem is to know to whom to write, whom to interview, and what to read.

The tremendous number of business and professional associations are valuable largely because they provide contacts with men in other business organizations engaged in essentially the same kind of work. A member of one of these associations may easily obtain the names of others engaged in the same work by writing to the secretary. Very often the association itself publishes annual reports and bulletins which supply the information desired. If the desired publications are lacking, then one's fellow workers may be approached through interviews and letters. In the section under reading we have included a partial list of national business associations with directions for securing the names of their secretaries.

The faculties of our colleges and universities are also very valuable sources of information which may be obtained by interviews or letters. The bureaus of business research, maintained by many of our colleges and universities, exist in part for the purpose of supplying facts to business men. Scientific problems frequently have been solved by university professors before the discovery fills a commercial need. In the field of the subject matter of this book, many university professors are well prepared to assist business men to solve their speech problems. When a new problem is submitted to a well-known university authority on the subject it frequently happens that the information is ready for use. Business and professional men are in increasing numbers making use of the faculties of these institutions. Names of university specialists may be obtained by consulting the catalogues published by each school. Catalogues of the principal universities can be found in most libraries or may be secured by writing directly to the institutions themselves.

Reading. Frequently the most difficult information to

obtain, with the possible exception of that obtained through experimentation, from any of the sources of material and at the same time the most prolific, is to be found in reading. It is difficult for many men to acquire information in this way because so few know how to make efficient use of a library. For many, a library is a baffling, mysterious thing. Yet in our libraries may be found information on almost any subject. An engineer friend recently told the story of a particularly bothersome problem in chemistry he was trying to solve. He had been working on it for months when he happened to be in New York and enlisted the services of a competent librarian at the New York Public Library. Much to his surprise and satisfaction, he found that a German chemist had solved the problem and had published his results. To learn to make use of our libraries is to learn to make use of the most valuable sources of information we have. The following suggestions on the use of a library will serve as a guide to the inquisitive business man and will help to unlock the treasures to be found there.

USING A LIBRARY

General guides and indexes. In order to locate material on any subject it is necessary to consult the various library catalogues and indexes. The more important of these for general literature are the *card catalogue, Reader's Guide, Public Affairs Information Service,* and the *Industrial Arts Index.*

The card catalogue. The card catalogue contains at least one card for each book in the library, and most libraries have two; one classified under the name of the author and one under the title. These cards give the author's name, the date of his birth, and if he is dead the date of his death, the number of pages in the book, the chapter headings, and the date of publication. The cards also have, usually in the upper left-hand corner, a call number which indicates to the librarian the position of the book on the shelves.

Reader's Guide. The *Reader's Guide* is a guide to general periodical literature from 1900 down to the present time. Whenever you think that information on your subject might be found in general periodicals, consult this guide. Look either under the author's name or under the subject. The guide will give you the exact source of the material you desire; it gives the name of the magazine, the volume, and the page. At the end of each section a number of cross references are usually given; these refer the reader to material on related subjects and should be included in his search.

Public Affairs Information Service. The Public Affairs Information Service is almost exclusively concerned with special periodicals, with reports and bulletins issued by local, state, and national governments, reports of business firms and associations, and books on special subjects. This is an especially valuable service for business men. It covers a great field, which is almost untouched by the *Reader's Guide* and, in general, the sources are more reliable and authoritative.

The Industrial Arts Index. This index is a valuable guide to scientific and technical information. It covers technical periodicals and other sources of scientific material.

Special business guides. A series of four books compiled by the librarians of the Newark (New Jersey) Public Library comprise what the authors believe to be the most valuable guides to the literature of business. The first of these is published by the American Library Association and the last three by the H. W. Wilson Company, New York.

Five Hundred Business Books. This book contains a list of business books published down to October, 1919. It covers all phases of business under both author and title. It gives the date of publication, a very brief description, the name of the publisher, and the price at the time of publication.

1,600 Business Books. The first edition of this book, published in 1916, contains 1,600 titles. The second edition, published in 1917, was revised and enlarged to 2,100

titles. It gives the name of the author, the title, the date of publication, and the name of the publisher.

2,400 Business Books. 2,400 Business Books and a Guide to Business Literature was published in 1920. It lists many of the same titles listed in *1,600 Business Books,* with the addition of many new ones, and covers the same period of time as that covered by *Five Hundred Business Books.* An added feature of this book is a complete index under the chapter headings of all the books listed.

2,600 Business Books. The volume *2,400 Business Books* covers business literature down to 1920. *2,600 Business Books* covers business literature from 1920 to 1926. The titles are therefore all new. It is an analytical catalogue covering the most important book and pamphlet literature of business.

Reference books—General encyclopedias. General encyclopedias contain a vast amount of information, covering practically all fields of knowledge. They cover all the liberal arts and sciences. The more important general encyclopedias are:

Americana.
Britannica.
Nelson's Loose Leaf.
New International.

The *Britannica* is an English publication; the others are American. As a general rule, you will find the subjects listed alphabetically, but if you do not find your subject listed in its proper place among the separate articles, look in the general index.

Special business encyclopedias. Even more valuable to business men than the general encyclopedias are the compilations devoted exclusively to business. There are not only special business encyclopedias, covering business generally, but encyclopedias for almost every separate business and profession. The following are examples:

Accounting and Business Dictionary, by E. Bienvenu.
Business Building, by F. F. Sharles.
Dyke's Automobile and Gasoline Engine Encyclopedia.
Encyclopedia of Banking and Finance, by G. G. Munn.

Encyclopedia of Food, by A. Ward.
Encyclopedia of General Business and Legal Forms, by C. F. Birdseye.
Oil Encyclopedia, by M. Mitzakis.[1]

Dictionaries. Dictionaries should be consulted for the meaning of ambiguous words. Effective business communication demands that words conveying just the right shade of meaning be used. It is important to get into the habit of consulting dictionaries not only to find out the meaning of a word or its pronunciation but also to learn its synonyms, that is, the other words in the language that have nearly the same meaning. The use of synonyms enables one to avoid awkward repetition and to convey the meaning exactly. Besides the general dictionaries, familiar to all of us, there are special business dictionaries of great value to business men. The following are examples:

Accountant's Dictionary, by F. W. Pixley.
Chemical Synonyms and Trade Names, by W. Gardner.
Counting-house Dictionary, by J. W. Kuhrt.
Dictionary of Commercial Terms, by J. B. Griffith.[2]

Atlases and maps. Atlases and maps are an essential part of the equipment of almost every business organization. These give information of great value in developing markets and in determining sources of raw material. Maps also provide a form on which the progress of the business may be charted. Some important business atlases are:

Brown's Nautical Atlas of the World.
Business Atlas of Economic Geography, C. S. Hammond & Co.
Reynold's Comprehensive Atlas and Gazetteer of the World.

General yearbooks. Just as we have general and special encyclopedias so we also have general and special yearbooks.

---

[1] For a complete list of special business encyclopedias, see *2,400 Business Books* and *2,600 Business Books.*

[2] For a complete list of business dictionaries, see *2,400 Business Books* and *2,600 Business Books.*

These contain a wide variety of condensed information. Some of the important general yearbooks are:

Agricultural Yearbook.
American Yearbook.
Americana Yearbook.
New International Yearbook.
Statesmen's Yearbook.
Statistical Abstract of the United States.
World Almanac.

Special business yearbooks. Probably even more valuable to business men are the special yearbooks. These contain detailed information on special businesses and professions. A few of these are:

Aircraft Yearbook.
American Labor Yearbook.
Chemical Age Yearbook.
Commerce Yearbook.
Cotton Yearbook.
Farm Journal Yearbook.
Modern Hospital Yearbook.[3]

Biographical material. Many biographies of prominent men and women can be found in the encyclopedias and by consulting the card catalogue. Some biographical material can also be found in periodicals. In addition to these, two other sources are very useful. These are:

Who's Who.
Who's Who in America.

The first of these is an English publication and gives short biographies of prominent living British men and women. The other is an American publication and does the same thing for Americans.

Periodical literature. This is reached through the *Reader's Guide,* the *Public Affairs Information Service,* the *Industrial Arts Index* and through the various other indexes listed in *2,400 Business Books* and *2,600 Business Books.* These guides list information from both general and special periodicals.

---

[3] For additional yearbooks, see *2,400 Business Books* and *2,600 Business Books.*

General periodicals. General periodicals cover subjects of general interest. Some of the more important are:

Atlantic Monthly.
Independent.
Literary Digest.
National Geographic.
Outlook.
Review of Reviews.
Scientific American.
Scientific Monthly.
Survey.
World's Work.

Special business periodicals. These are more useful as sources of business facts. They cover every type of business subject and help to keep business men informed of new developments. Periodical information comes to its reader new and fresh, frequently months or years before the same information finds its way into books. So important are special business periodicals as sources of facts that we are including a list of the publications of this type, received by the University of Illinois Library.

Acceptance Bulletin
Accountant
Accountants' Journal
Advertising and Selling
Aeolian
American Exporter
American Foreign Service Journal
American Gas Association Monthly
American Gas Association Information Service
Annalist
Arbitrator
Automobile Topics
Ayrograms
Bank Archives
Bankers, Insurance Managers and Agents Magazine
Bankers Magazine
Banking Law Journal
Battle Creek Idea
Best's Insurance News
Better Advertising
Board of Trade Journal
Bradstreet's
British Trade Journal
Burroughs Clearing House
Business Magazine

Brookmire—
Agricultural Survey
Analyst
Building Bulletin
Economic Service
Farm Income Bulletin
Financial Bulletin
Investment and Opportunity Bulletin
Lumber Bulletin
Price and Market Bulletin
Sales and Credit Map
Trade Bulletin
Trend Chart
Canada Ink
Caxton Magazine
Cedar Rapids Savings Letter
Certified Public Accountant
Certified Public Accountant Bulletin
Chamber of Commerce
Chamber of Commerce of New York State
Chicago Commerce
Commercial America
Commercial and Financial Chronicle
Commonwealth Journal of Accountancy
Co-operation
Current Affairs
Daytonews
Direct Mail and Advertising Association Bulletin
Disston Crucible
Doherty News
Dome Echoes
Dry Goods Economist
Dunn's International Review
Dunn's Review
Dynamo
Echo
Economist (Chicago)
Economist (London)
Export Trade and Finance
Export World
Factory
Farmers Express
Federal
Federal Reserve Bank of St. Louis

Fidelity Spirit
Finance and Industry
Financial World
Fuller Bristler
Gaylord's Triangle
Getting Ahead
Guenther's Independent Appraisal of Tested Stock
Hail Columbia
Hartman's Freight Rate Service
Haskell and Sell's Bulletin
Honey Comb Briefs
Hotel Management
Houghton Line
Illinois Alumni News
Illinois Manufacturers' Association
Incorporated Accountants Journal
Industrial Bulletin
Industrial Canada
Industrial Conciliation
Industrial Gas
Industrial Management
International Ry. Congress Association Bulletin
Internal Revenue Bulletin
Iron Age
Journal of Accountancy
Journal of Institute of Actuaries
Journal of Land and Public Economics
Journal of the Institute of Bankers
Labor Age
Labor Monthly
Lamp
Life Association News
Linoleum Logic
Magazine of Business
Magazine of Wall Street
Mail-Bag
Manufacturing Industries
Marine Review
Michigan Banker
Modern Merchant & Grocery World
Modern Transport
Moonbeams
Mutual Insurance Bulletin
Mutual Underwriter

National Association of Cost Accountants
National City Bank of New York
National Income Tax Magazine
National Knitted Underwear Association Bulletin
Nation's Business
News Letter
Northwestern National Bank Review
Novelty News
Official Railway Guide
Park's Open Shop Review
Personal Efficiency
Pocket Bulletin
Pocket List of Railroad Officials
Poor's Rating Bulletin
Postage and Mailbag
Prentice-Hall Federal Tax Service Bulletin
Price Current Grain Reporter
Printers' Ink
Public Service Magazine
Public Service Management
Public Utilities Advertising Association
Public Utilities Report
Railway Age
Railway Gazette
Railway Magazine
Railway Revenue and Expenses
Record and Guide
Ruler
Shield
Specialty Salesman Magazine
Spectator
Staley Journal
State Bank of the U. S. S. R.
Statist
Stock Exchange Gazette
Store Chat
Straus' Investors Magazine
Swedish-American Trade Journal
System
Taylor Society Bulletin
Taylorite
Telegraphic Transfers
Textile World
Tips and Taps

Trade Trends
Traffic Bulletin
Traffic World
Tropical Life
Typothetae Bulletin
United States Board of Tax Appeals Report
United States Commerce—Department of Commerce Reports
Monthly Summary of Foreign Commerce in United States
United States Investor
United States Money Circulation Statistics
United States Tobacco Journal
Wall Street Financial Bureau
Weather Vein
Weekly Statistical Sugar Trade Journal
Western Electric News
White Star
William Feather Magazine
World Parts

NEWSPAPERS:

American Banker
Chicago Journal of Commerce
Christian Science Monitor
Interstate Grocer
Journal of Commerce
New York Times
Oil City Weekly Derrick
Retail Ledger
United States Daily
Wall Street Journal
Wall Street News

Special publications. In addition to special business periodicals there are hundreds of other publications issued by business organizations and by associations. Some of these appear regularly on a definite schedule and others appear more or less intermittently. Many of them are valuable sources. When in search of specialized information one can frequently find it by reference to the publications of corporations and associations which are primarily interested in that particular subject. The catalogues of business organizations are particularly valuable.

Associations. The names and addresses of hundreds of business associations may be obtained from the *Public Affairs Information Service* and from the *Industrial Arts Index.* A partial list of more important ones follow:

American Federation of Labor
National Board of Fire Underwriters
National Association of Supervisors of State Banks
National Boot and Shoe Manufacturers Association
National Coal Association
American Bankers Association
American Bell Telephone Company (Annual Report)
National Association of Attorney Generals
National Association of Mutual Insurance Companies
National Associated Manufacturers of the United States
National Warm Air Heating and Ventilating Association
National Electric Heating and Lighting Association
National Park Conference
National Retail Dry Goods Association
National Wholesale Grocers Association
National Lumber Manufacturers Association
National Implement and Vehicle Association
National Highway Traffic Association
National Federation of Building Trades
National Academy of Design
National Academy of Sciences
National Advisory Committee for Aeronautics
National American Woman Suffrage Association
National Association for Advancement of Colored People
National Association for Child Labor
National Association of Audubon Societies (Birds)
National Association of Book Publishers
National Association of Credit Men
National Association of Secondary School Principals
National Association of Teachers of Speech
National Association of Women Painters and Sculptors
National Automobile Chamber of Commerce
National Board of Farm Organizations
National Collegiate World Court Conference
National Commission on Art Education
National Committee on Research in Secondary Education
National Confederation of Labor
National Conference of City Supervisors of Home Economics
National Conference of Commissioners on Uniform State Laws

National Conference of Social Work
National Conference on Education and Citizenship
National Conference on Outdoor Recreation
National Conference on Pharmaceutical Research
National Conference on Street and Highway Safety
National Conference on the Utilization of Forest Products
National Conference on Weights and Measures
National Conference of Mothers and Parent-Teachers Assns.
National Conference of Parents and Teachers
National Consumers League
National Council of Education, United States
National Council of Education, Canada
National Council of Jewish Women
National Council of Labor
National Country Life Association (or Conference)
National Crime Commission
National Distribution Conference
National Economic Council in France
National Education Commission
- Department of Adult Education
- Department of Business Education
- Department of Classroom Teachers
- Department of Deans of Women
- Department of Elementary School Principals
- Department of Immigrant Education
- Department of Kindergarten Education
- Department of Music Education
- Department of Rural Education
- Department of School Health and Physical Education
- Department of Scientific Instruction
- Department of Superintendents
- Department of Vocational Education and Practical Arts

National Farm Home Conference
National Federation of Business and Professional Women's Clubs
National Federation of Women's Institutes
National Foreign Trade Convention
National Geographic Society
National Health Council
National Honor Society
National Institute of Industrial Psychology
National League of Girls Clubs

National Motorists Association
National League of Women Voters
National Museum of Engineering and Industry
National Organization for Public Health Nursing
National Radio Conference
National Research Council
National Restaurant Association
National Safety Council
National Security League
National Social Work Council
American Railroad Association
American Electro-platers Society
American Gas Association
American Gear Manufacturing Association
American Institute of Banking
American Iron & Steel Institute
American Manufacturers Association
American Mining Congress
American National Retail Jewelers Association
American Newspaper Publishers Association
American Oil Men's Association
American Paper and Pulp Association
American Petroleum Institute
American Photo-engravers Association
American Pig Iron Association
American Railway Bridge Building Association
American Road Builders Association
American Silver Producers Association
American Society of Agricultural Engineers
National Society for Study of Education
National Society for Vocation Education
National Vocational Guidance Association
National Women's Trade-Union League of America
Illinois Department of Labor
Illinois Academy of Science
Illinois Library Association
American Academy of Arts and Sciences
American Academy of Political and Social Science
American Association for Medical Progress
American Association for Advancement of Science
American Association of Collegiate Registrars
American Association of Law Libraries
American Association of Museums
American Association of Teachers Colleges

American Association of University Professors
American Association of University Women
American Astronomical Society
American Automobile Association
American Bankers Association
American Bar Association
American Ceramic Society
American Chemical Society
American Child Health Association
American Classical League
American Country Life Association
American Economic Association
American Electrochemical Society
American Engineering Council
American Engineering Standards Committee
American Federation of Labor
American Federation of Teachers
American Good Will Society
American Health Congress
American Historical Association
American Home Builders
American Home Economics Association
American Institute of Electrical Engineers
American Library Association
American Management Association
American Mathematical Society
American Medical Association
American Negro Labor Congress
American Orchestral Society
American Ornithologists Union
American Physical Society
American Physiological Society
American Psychological Association
American Public Health Association
American Radio Association
American Railway Association
American Society of Mammalogists
American Society of Mechanical Engineers
American Society of Naturalists
American Sociological Society
American Vocational Association
Aerial League of America
American Association for Advertising Agencies
American Association of Ice and Refrigeration

American Oil Burners Association
American Association of Woolen and Worsted Manufacturers
American Automobile Association
American Bankers Association
American Boiler Manufacturing Association
American Concrete Institute
American Cotton Manufacturers Association
American Drug Manufacturers Association

Corporations. Many of the bulletins and reports issued by corporations are intended as indirect advertising of the service or the products of the concern issuing them. Nevertheless, they contain many important facts and constitute a valuable source. The following are examples of firms issuing such material:

The American Telephone and Telegraph Company
The Firestone Tire and Rubber Company
The National City Bank of New York
The Federal Reserve Bank
A. W. Shaw Company

Publications from organizations of this sort are usually free and may be obtained by writing directly to their offices.

Government reports and documents. There are three kinds of government reports; local, state, and national.

Local. Many cities issue special reports and bulletins dealing with various civic activities such as the waterworks, the light plant, and education.

State. The states also issue many valuable bulletins and reports. These are of two kinds, legislative and executive. All states publish the journals of their legislative bodies and the reports of the various executive departments and bureaus. Besides the regular reports of executive departments, many of them issue special bulletins.

Federal Government. The most important of all government reports and documents are those issued by the Federal Government. These are divided into congressional and executive.

The congressional reports include the *Congressional Record* and *Committee Hearings.* The *Congressional Record*

is a record of everything that takes place on the floor of both houses of Congress, while the Committee Hearings are the records of the committees of both houses on the bills assigned to them. These usually cover all phases of a bill and are valuable sources of material.

More important than the congressional reports are the documents issued by the executive departments. These are prepared by experts, employed by the government, and are regarded as very reliable sources of information. Some of the more important reports and bulletins are those issued by:

Department of State
Treasury Department
War Department
Navy Department
Children's Bureau
Department of Labor
Department of the Interior
Bureau of the Census
Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce
Bureau of Labor Statistics
Bureau of Internal Revenue
Department of Justice
Bureau of Standards
Bureau of Education

The reports and bulletins, issued by all departments of the federal government may be secured directly from the Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C.

SUMMARY

In order to be able to solve unusual problems, business men must be on the lookout for new facts about their businesses. Fact finding is essential. Every business and professional speaker must know the important facts about the subject of his talk if he is to succeed.

The common sources of speech material are *personal knowledge, observation, experimentation, interviews, letters,* and *reading.* Answers to all perplexing problems of business

can be found, if the problem has been solved by others or if it can be solved experimentally. The speaker should first examine his own mind for hints. If thinking fails, he should then try one or more of the other sources.

BUSINESS AND PROFESSIONAL SPEAKING

PART II

TYPES OF BUSINESS TALKS

VIII

INSTRUCTIONS AND EXPLANATIONS

The value of clearness. General characteristics. Definiteness. Adaptation to hearer. Planning the talk. Specific purpose. Main ideas. Speech details. Introduction and conclusion. Manner of presentation. Faults to avoid. An example of explanation.

THOUSANDS of dollars would be saved to business concerns if absolute clearness and definiteness in the giving of instructions and explanations could be achieved. "I thought you wanted a Number Three casting, not a Number Two, and I didn't know it wasn't to be delivered until tomorrow," are the sort of remarks that indicate waste due to lack of these qualities. So important is accuracy in the giving of orders and directions that many concerns have resorted to written memoranda wherever possible. There are, however, many cases in which the oral communication of instructions must necessarily be used. Explanations must, as a rule, be oral. Efficiency will be increased by a study of the methods of planning and presenting such explanations and instructions.

GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS

Definiteness. This is the first fundamental of good oral instruction and explanation. What is to be done, by whom, when, where, and how, should all be clearly specified. In making assignments for the covering of an important news event, such as a political convention, for instance, the editor must specify which members of the staff of reporters will write the general description, which cover the speeches, which get into contact with political leaders, which look out for surprises, and so on. Failure to do so would involve the staff in confusion. In ordering goods, the exact quantity,

quality, size, style, and time of delivery should be specified Concreteness, or definiteness, is thus the goal at which the speaker must aim, whether he is giving private instructions, or addressing a group. At annual salesmen's meetings, for instance, the exact quota for the coming year, the exact methods to be used in filling the quota, the new lines of goods to be offered, and the price changes, should all be concretely stated. Failure to be definite always produces confusion, and slows up the business machine.

Adaptation to hearer. Equally important is adaptation of instructions or explanations to the hearer's understanding. It makes a great difference to the speaker whether the hearer is a highly intelligent and specially trained engineer, or a novice secretary. Consequently the principle of the familiar, discussed in Part I of this work, must be applied constantly. The lower the hearer may be in the scale of intelligence and in training, the simpler and more definite must be the talk. A speech on *Sources of Commodity Statistics,* using technical terms, would be well adapted to a highly specialized audience of purchasing agents; it would be a failure addressed to beginners in this field.

PLANNING THE TALK

Specific purpose. The speaker, in planning this kind of a talk, must select as his specific purpose a statement of just what it is that he wants his hearer *to understand.* It is not conviction or persuasion that he wishes, it is simple clearness. Thus, "to convince the audience that the sources of commodity statistics are unreliable" would be a mistaken specific purpose. Rather, it should be, "To make the audience understand what the sources of commodity statistics are." Argument should be avoided by choosing a specific purpose which seeks only understanding. The specific purpose must, of course, be limited to the explanation of a topic which can be made clear in the time allotted, and which is within the ability of the audience to comprehend.

Main ideas. The main ideas should be chosen to make clear the "what, when, where, how, and by whom." It is not necessary in any given situation that these exact divisions be used as main ideas; but the total effect of the main ideas should be to make these points understood. Time-order may be used occasionally—what shall be done first, second, third, and so on. Again, the division may be made according to the different parts of the subject, as "grain statistics, lumber statistics, lime statistics," and so on. The order of increasing difficulty may be used in explaining a difficult subject, by starting with an idea most closely resembling the audience's present knowledge, and proceeding from that to ideas more remote from their experience.

Each main idea should in a way *define* the subject. It should tell what sort of a thing it is, how it differs from other things in the same class, or it should carry on the definition that other main ideas have begun. The best method of testing the value of ideas is to ask, "Do these ideas, standing by themselves, tend to clear up the subject I am seeking to explain? Do they define it? Do they divide it into its logical parts? Will the hearer actually begin to understand my subject when the first main idea is stated?"

Speech details. Comparison, because it involves the principle of the familiar, is perhaps the most valuable of the speech details in explanations and instructions. "Liken the thing to be understood to that which the hearer already understands," is a principle which must be applied throughout. Thus, when you compare the die used in making butt-welded pipe to a bell, the top of which has been cut off to allow the strip of heated steel to pass through, you make clear to the hearer the exact nature of this die much more readily than by detailed description.

Specific cases and statistics are of value in explanations because they lend the desirable quality of concreteness to the speech. So far as possible, the specific cases used should be those known to the hearer, and the statistics should at

least be comprehensible. Simple drawings and charts may be used to aid the explanation.

Expert opinion is usually of little value in explanation, but it may be used if the expert quoted has given, in a happy phrase, a concise explanation of the subject.

Simple reiteration finds one of its greatest functions in this type of speaking. To make a thing clear, it is necessary to repeat it in many ways, in order that it may not be forgotten. Reiteration should be used in summarizing each main idea, and in summarizing the talk at the end.

Introduction and conclusion. The simplest introduction, stating what is to be explained and how the subject is to be taken up; and the simplest conclusion, consisting of reiteration of the main ideas, are usually most effective in attaining complete understanding on the part of the hearer.

Manner of presentation. Clearness in enunciation and directness and simplicity in manner are the most essential characteristics of presentation. Words must be formed carefully, so that no misunderstandings may arise from failure to hear precisely what the speaker has said. Directness is necessary in this, as in all types of speaking, to hold the hearer's attention and to determine whether or not he is reacting properly. Simplicity of manner aids clearness because it does not attract attention to itself. If the speaker were to become highly-wrought and emotional, his voice and action would tend to arouse the emotions of the hearer, and thus detract from the achievement of his purpose. *Desk-pounding and shouting have no place in the giving of explanations.* They intimidate, antagonize, or distract the hearer. The speaker should gain emphasis, rather, by his directness, his sincerity, and his interest in getting the hearer to comprehend.

Faults to avoid. On the side of the talk itself, the most important faults to avoid are the injection of argument and the reprimanding of the hearer. The purpose is not to persuade, nor to "call down" the listener, but to get him to comprehend exactly what the subject is, or what is to be

done. Argument and admonition of the kinds indicated spoil the effect of good explanation. The talk must, of course, avoid indefiniteness and confusion. On the side of presentation, noisiness, anger, and, perhaps most important of all, impatience, must be avoided.

AN EXAMPLE OF EXPLANATION

The speech which follows illustrates the happy use of the principles of good explanation. It was delivered before the National Retail Furniture Dealers' Association, in convention at Grand Rapids in July, 1926. Study of this example will reveal the qualities which a good speech of instruction or explanation should have.

How to Prepare a Complete Advertising Program[1]

In presenting the plan that I am about to unfold for making your publicity more productive, it is quite apart from my intention to make the pretense that it is a cure-all for all advertising ills.

Advertising is a subject which is very much alive. It has few traditions, and only a slow growing body of principles. Two experts may recommend entirely different solutions of the same advertising problem, and both of them may be right. Two campaigns to accomplish the same purpose have often been conducted in entirely different ways, both proving successful. Because of the plastic state of the art of advertising, because the one best campaign of a given advertiser must still be partly a matter of opinion, it is impossible to lay down a set of hard and fast rules for the planning of advertising campaigns. And yet general principles have been developed from experience. The advertising fraternity has begun to compare experiences, and to find that in planning a campaign the advertiser usually asks himself certain fundamental questions which must be adequately answered before any campaign can be properly launched. It is my purpose to outline some of these questions and show the effect their answers have upon a campaign.

The audience must be expected to draw their own conclusions as to how the basic questions should be answered in planning a

[1] George W. Ogilvie, *Proceedings*, Fourth Session, National Retail Furniture Institute. Reprinted by permission.

campaign for the stores and cities in which they are most interested.

First, it is well to ask yourself, "What is a campaign?" The word campaign signifies careful planning and coordination of thought and gathering those thoughts collectively for effective operation. In war and in business, its significance is the same. An advertising campaign includes everything done by an advertiser to produce sales through publicity, all planned in advance, with every part of the campaign designed to fit into the other parts so that there will be little effort, least possible friction—simply a smooth running machine directed towards the goal of increased sales.

The idea of uniting all the advertising of an organization into a strongly centered campaign is one of the newer developments of modern business. A quarter of a century ago advertising was thought of as merely general publicity. In those days an advertisement was simply an advertisement, more of a gamble than an investment.

The day of profit in hit-and-miss advertising has gone. Without a definite campaign there is little chance for success. And that is why every successful campaign is backed by a definite purpose for the accomplishment of a specific object.

Back of every advertising campaign there should be a man who is responsible for its success. His title may be advertising manager, director of publicity, or advertising counsel. Whatever this man's title, his duty is to devise ways and means to promote the business through publicity.

The advertising man is a professional man. He resembles a physician in that his training and experience enable him to diagnose business troubles and to prescribe remedial measures. He resembles a lawyer in that he outlines a plan of campaign for his client and then pleads his case before the court of the people.

The advertising manager must have the power of analysis. He must be able to weigh values. He must be able to keep the big idea constantly in mind, and yet must be a man who will not let the detail of a misspelled word escape his notice.

He must plan his work far ahead. He must have vision. He must have imagination in its broadest sense. A salesman has his prospect constantly before him; he can change his line of argument to meet conditions. An advertising manager must anticipate all conditions and make all arguments to fit those conditions in advance.

Little as it is recognized, advertising is one of the four or five great universal arts, and of these it is the most difficult, for not

only does it require a practical understanding of human nature and how it may be influenced, but also an appreciation of several other arts, including those of the printer, the writer, the painter, and the organizer.

Few things in advertising are standardized. There are few principles to apply. Accordingly, personal judgment is always an important factor in deciding on the details of a campaign. It is natural, therefore, that the operators and managers of a business should believe their judgment is as good as the advertising manager's, and that they should supervise many of his functions in detail. Where this natural attitude is too pronounced, there is grave danger of seriously handicapping the advertising manager by permitting the active interest of too many of the company's executives in the conduct of an advertising department.

There's a certain amount of fascination to advertising, and, this, perhaps, is why everybody likes to have a finger in it. It is easy for the president of the company to insist on the necessity of his approving so many details of the advertising, that the advertising man is likely to ask himself, "What will please the Boss?" rather than "What will make customers?"

Many advertising campaigns have failed because the recommendations of the expert advertising manager are altered in favor of plans merely based on the prejudices and personal opinions of his superiors.

If one is to be responsible for an advertising campaign, no one by interference should relieve him of that responsibility.

Advertising is the product of imagination, courage and of other subtle, almost spiritual forces which make it nothing short of cruelty to subject it to interference from those who have not seen the development of the idea from the moment of its inception. I do not know of any business which receives as much interference from other departments.

Your advertisements are the representatives, the ambassadors of your organization, and they should express the spirit of that organization in every detail. It is right that those "higher up" should give counsel, but they cannot in justice to themselves give attention to details unless they give all their time to those details.

A conscientious advertising manager will get much help from all other departments, and in various ways of his own.

The answer to the question, "How much will it cost to put on an advertising campaign?" is much like the answer to the question, "How much will it cost to build a house?" A house can cost all the way from a few hundred dollars to a few million dollars, depending upon what the owner needs or thinks he needs.

As the style and size of the house will naturally depend upon the lot it is to be built upon, the same applies to an advertising campaign. The question here is, "Over how long a period should it be extended?"

The most productive retail furniture advertising campaigns are planned on a twelve month basis.

How much should be spent can be arrived at in different ways. Some merchants have no more definite basis for estimating their appropriations than the amount they spent the year previous. If this amount is to be used simply as a starting point from which to figure a possible increased appropriation, there are no objections to its uses. If the merchant blindly appropriates for one year the same amount he spent the year before, he can hardly expect to meet changing conditions or to make progress. Probably the most popular plan of estimating the appropriation ranges all the way from 2½% to 5%.

A plan that I have found most successful is to take 5% of the gross value of your best year. As this is the mark that everybody desires to beat, why not use it as the basis for your appropriation? It doesn't cost any more to talk in big numbers than small, so let us say your volume was two million dollars for that period. This gives you an advertising appropriation of one hundred thousand dollars to work with.

Before proceeding to apportion this advertising appropriation, let us make a very careful analysis of the merchandising program, a survey of local conditions, a thorough investigation of the various departments and their volume, and a diagnosis of the past year's advertising.

An autopsy of this nature will usually reveal some of the following points:

1. Weak merchandising. Advertising featured too many small articles, or account openers, and not enough volume merchandise, such as suites and large pieces that run into money.
2. Suites advertised were from the low priced end of the line.
3. Weak advertising copy. Using too much space. Smaller space should be used more effectively and more frequently.
4. Poor art work. Not enough distinction between the cut illustrating a $350 dining room suite and the one at $150.
5. Newspapers do not thoroughly cover your territory.
6. Too small a mailing list.

7. Drapery department should be developed.
8. Luggage display should be moved to a more advantageous location.
9. Selling force is weak.

With a knowledge of these faults and facts, let us take the next step—setting the objective—a volume mark to shoot at.

Eight per cent is considered the average increase for a healthy business. Now it is our desire to reduce the advertising cost to less than 5% if possible. So for the coming year let us set an objective of a 20% increase, making a business goal of two million four hundred thousand. If we make the objective or a substantial part of it, the advertising cost has been reduced.

The responsibility for this increase in business volume, does not, however, rest entirely upon the shoulders of the advertising manager. He must have the cooperation of the entire organization. The dovetailing functions of advertising and merchandising must be clearly recognized. Constructive measures must be introduced to overcome the weak spots we have found.

Next we should set quotas for the various departments.

ALLOTTING SALES TO DEPARTMENTS

Dept.	Articles included	Per Cent of Sales for Year
A	Furniture	60
B	Bedding: Metal beds; Cribs; Day beds; Mattresses; Springs	10
C	Kitchen: Gas ranges; Kitchen cabinets; Porcelain tables; Refrigerators	6
D	Floor coverings: Rugs; Carpets; Linoleum	12
F	Draperies: Draperies; Curtains; Cushions; Blankets	5
H	Miscellaneous: Luggage; Lamps; Mirrors; Porch shades	7

Figure 2: Allotting sales to departments.

This disposed of, the advertising manager's next move is to budget the advertising appropriation and outline a tentative promotion program. Here his functions are:

Studying the merchandise that he is to exploit; becoming thoroughly familiar with its superior points; instilling within himself an enthusiasm that will be reflected in his copy.

Studying competition (competitors should be studied but not always followed). Constructive business policies are built upon research, but not upon imitation. Copying others in advertising is often a waste of time and money, because your competitor does not always know what he is doing.

Studying opportunity, when your advertising should hit hardest and the opportune time for your biggest merchandising events. Studying policy of appeal; deciding whether to make the appeal entirely upon price or make it with an institutional or human interest flavor.

Laying out the appropriation. Studying and choosing the medium.

Let me say that I think all mediums are good. They are not all good for all purposes, but each one for some particular purpose and in some particular way can perform a useful service for some advertiser. First choice, of course, in retail furniture advertising comes the newspaper.

When you purchase newspaper advertising, you buy white space and circulation. Your advertising is based on the circulation.

Here the question arises, "What is circulation?" It is the number of individuals who may be expected to see your advertisement. If you buy a circulation of a hundred thousand that is what you pay for. It does not, however, mean that you have purchased one hundred thousand readers. Readers cannot be bought. They must be persuaded. This the advertising manager must bear in mind in the preparation of copy, making it as attractive in appearance as possible.

Another point that should not be overlooked is the weighing of circulation. Make sure that the circulation reaches the districts that you desire to reach. Audited circulation statements will enable you to check this. After these few remarks on newspapers let us put them down for 75% of our appropriation.

Direct mail is the next in the lineup. This form has many strong points in its favor. 1. No competition—when your individual piece of advertising is opened, it is not in competition with perhaps two dozen others, as in a newspaper; 2, you can limit the expense of your campaign; 3, concentrate on a particular

community or class of people; 4, it permits the spending of small or large sums as conditions dictate; 5, increased circulation means decreased cost to reach prospects. Thus we will give direct mail a 15% portion of our advertising budget. We must not overlook the fact that good art work is essential to attractive advertising. If your advertising is not read it is non-productive. If your advertising gains favorable attention by use of good illustrations, you've won a large part of the battle. The copy has that much better chance to get the reader into your store. You've heard so often, "A story in picture leaves nothing untold!" You may or may not believe it, but we will all agree that good art work does much to put advertising into the productive class. Art work should draw 4% of our appropriation.

Then come the billboards to remind Mr. and Mrs. Automobile Riders, or Street Car Riders, or Wandering Walkers that you carried an advertisement in last night's paper or this morning's mail, and that while they are down town they should go in and see the merchandise you so attractively told them about with fine illustrations and pointed copy. Therefore billboards get 2% of the advertising money.

Then comes "Miscellaneous" to cover a multitude of purchases that "politics" and "charity" and "entertainment" accounts should bear. But it is an ever present portion and placed at 2%.

One must not overlook holding a little, at least 2%, in reserve, so that if you're in a tight place, you can use that little extra to help step out. You might have to use it in the first months —and anyway, a little extra always is spent to get the needed results.

Thus our "Media" chart for the budget would appear as follows:

Splitting the Advertising Budget

Medium	Per Cent
Newspapers	75
Direct mail	15
Art work	4
Billboards	2
Miscellaneous—Program, phone book, house organ	2
Reserve	2

Figure 3: Splitting the advertising budget.

Another thing, which I feel is vital to the alert advertising man, is "knowing where he stands." I chart the year's business month

by month. I set the quota for $2,400,000 sales for the year. Experience has taught me that in the particular territory in which my store is located it costs about 5% for advertising. Therefore on my quota I have $120,000 for advertising use.

Experience has taught me that of the total, 100% of my advertising appropriation, I should spend 4% in the month of January, and should get a 5% sales volume. That is, I spend 4% of my $120,000 advertising appropriation, and I should therefore get 5% of my annual sales quota, $2,400,000, or $120,000 sales in January.

Now, January is a "clearance month," and you can work the clearance copy pretty heavily. You should also be pushing items such as blankets, comforters, lamps and such.

In February, I find that I should do about 8% of my annual volume, approximately $192,000; and the cost is 10% of my advertising appropriation. February is a short month and you have to get your sales quickly. It is hard labor. A couple of weeks of bad weather and you will find difficulty in coming through. Use advertising and plan far in advance for a real sale or series of sales for the month. Keep the crowds coming in the front door if you're going to get that 8%.

March finds you just getting through with a sale period and you may experience some more hard labor. But don't be discouraged, jump in pushing old suites and other attractively priced items. I always go in for kitchen departments, and I've been especially successful with refrigerators this month. In March you should get 5% of your volume and spend 6% of your advertising money.

In April I push draperies and suites and swing into floor coverings with 7% of the sales quota to get and about 8% of the advertising money to spend.

In May, I always put on a drive to sell summer furniture. Watch the weather for this, and just as soon as it breaks "fair and warmer" pull out the advertising on wicker and porch goods.

When I put on a drive, such as the summer furniture drive, I follow up the newspaper advertising with direct mail. We use six mailings during the year, in addition to our newspaper advertising. Here is a good place to use it. Your merchandise is priced for profit and the season makes the demand for it at such prices. You'll have to get 8% of your sales quota this month, and you should spend about 9% of your advertising cash.

Remember that house cleaning time calls for bright new merchandise. That's one reason for wicker being so profitable and

timely. In May, don't forget that June is coming and that June brides and sweet girl graduates and solemn seniors of June always find luggage likely gifts to accept. Decoration Day usually offers opportunity to start the luggage load rolling, because you can suggest week-end trips. Naturally the gift suggestion quickly takes.

So in June, you can start the gift game, for brides, graduates, and anniversaries. You should sell 'em outfits, bedding and luggage this month. Your expenditures will be about 9% of the advertising money and your quota for the month should be at least 8% of the annual sales quota.

In July, with vacation suggestions come items of luggage, honeymooners returning home, and a tendency to slow down. So you'll have to step on it with a clearance suggestion, playing up rugs and luggage as regular items. Spend 4% of your money and get 5% of your annual sales quota. July first closes the first six months of the year, and gives me actual working charts for the year, on which I can base my final six months' program. If I have made an increase over my anticipated sales or quota, I'm going to sell the rest of the year on the same general trend. If I haven't made the quota, I'm going to analyze every step and all advertising and all conditions, until I know where I've spent too much or not enough, and eliminate or overcome some elements which I uncover.

Then I have August to consider, and it is probably the dullest month of the year. Consequently, I need to hold a sale that will drag people into the store. Usually it is best to go driving all the way through the whole month. Sometimes one can start off well, weaken in the middle of the month, and then make a strong finish. August is a good month for suites. I believe you should spend about 12% of your advertising money and your results will show about 11% of the sales quota.

September is quite like March; the same general effects preceding, sales and depressing weather. The people are returning home from summer resorts and the home is being cleaned up again. Nevertheless, there is need for exertion to get business. I suggest you work in draperies, floor coverings, lamps, and suites. Spend 8% of your money and get 7% of your annual sales quota.

Now, for October, you'll have the third sale of the year. It seems best to work three major selling events, February, August, and October, the last being the biggest sale of the year. In our store, last October holds the record for highest volume of any month in the store's history. The records show that the best

business is done in outfits, with plenty of suites, and some bedding. Work this for an anniversary sale if it is at all possible. Figure on spending 10% of your money, and getting a 12% sales quota.

November is a good month in which to slow up, as it is between a big sale and the Christmas rush. It is a good idea to begin doing some Christmas propaganda, and get the people thinking of buying furniture store merchandise for gifts. You can get into the major items of the store, as dining room furniture and living room furniture. You will ease up by spending 9% of your advertising money, and getting, toward the end of the month mostly, about 11% of your annual sales volume.

December brings 13% of my annual volume of business and for that I spend 11% of my money. I continue the dining room and living room sales talk, begin to push large suites and comfortable chairs, with a very generous shower of the smaller merchandise which is always good for Christmas gifts. Don't overlook the fact that large pieces make proportionately larger gifts and sales, too.

Thus, you would find the entire year's business charted quite like this:

CHARTING THE YEAR'S BUSINESS

Month	Per Cent of Annual Sales	Items to Be Featured	Per Cent of Annual Advertising Budget	Expected Sales Volume
Jan.	5%	Blankets, comforts, lamps, clearance proposition	4%	$120,000
Feb.	8%	Sale	10%	192,000
Mar.	5%	Suites, kitchenry, lamps	6%	120,000
Apr.	7%	Suites, floor coverings, draperies	8%	168,000
May	8%	Drive, suites, summer-furniture, bedding, luggage	9%	192,000
June	8%	Bride drive, outfits, gifts, bedding, luggage	9%	192,000
July	5%	Clearance, rugs, luggage	4%	120,000
Aug.	11%	Dull month, sale needed	12%	264,000
Sept.	7%	Lamps, floor coverings, draperies	8%	168,000
Oct.	12%	Anniversary sale, outfit business, bedding	10%	288,000
Nov.	11%	Dining and living room furniture, holiday appeal	9%	264,000
Dec.	13%	Dining and living room furniture, Christmas drive	11%	312,000

Figure 4: Charting the year's business.

—with the comparison of the two lines, per cent of advertising and per cent of sales, appearing as this:

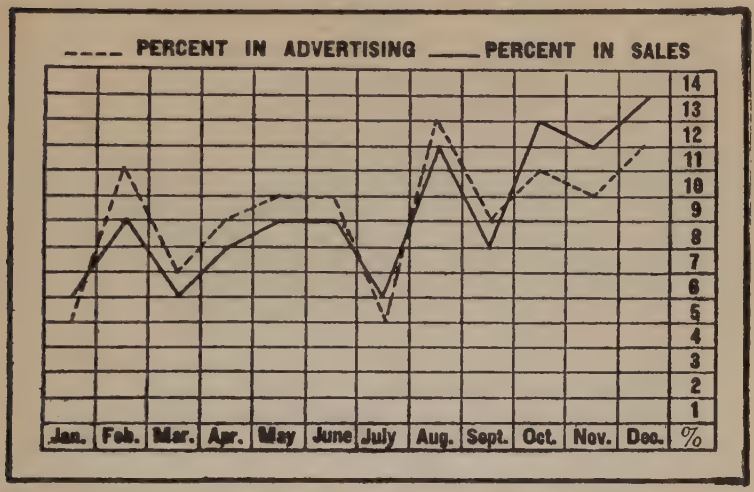

Figure 5: How advertising expenditures compare with monthly sales volume.

In the Christmas business, we use direct mail freely. We use throughout the year a large number of broadsides. These may not be very dignified pieces of advertising, but they are commanding, and their contents put the story across if they are opened.

In our direct mail, we use third-class postage, 1½ cent rate, even on our booklets. I have found since the postage increase that we can use the broadside at 1½ cents and get more punch than the circular letter which costs us 2 cents. I suggest that you use the mails rather than delivery systems, and that you mail to your complete list instead of just a portion of it. If your advertising is designed to appeal to all groups, mail the complete list. If you have your lists classified by types or groups or wealth or profession, then send special appeals to that specific group.

IX

THE ORAL REPORT

The importance of reports. Definition and types of reports. Differences from explanations. Variety of types. General characteristics. Clearness. Concreteness. Completeness. Preparing a report. Defining and investigating the problems. The specific purpose. The main ideas. Speech details. Use of charts. Models and demonstrations. Printed and mimeographed material. Introduction. Conclusion. Manner of presentation. Typical oral reports.

Upon many occasions, executives, engineers, statisticians and others are called upon to investigate a specific problem and to report their findings. Such reports may be written or oral. Very often a written report is supplemented by oral observations at the time it is submitted. The results of investigations are frequently used to determine future policies, or to guide members of firms in their efforts to carry out policies already decided upon. Therefore the written or oral report assumes a place of great importance in the conduct of business. Upon the thoroughness and accuracy of its conclusions depends, to some extent at least, the success of the organization concerned. It is not the function of this chapter to deal with the preparation of a written report, except incidentally.[1] We are to consider here the preparation and presentation of an oral report, to be given either informally to a single individual or a small group, or formally to a larger audience. The oral report offers the individual rendering it a considerable opportunity for personal advancement. By presenting a clearcut, comprehensive discussion, and by skillfully answering questions, he has every chance of making a favorable personal impression.

[1]The reader is referred to *Report Writing*, by Saunders and Anderson, published by the A. W. Shaw Company, and to Chapter XXIII of *Effective Business English*, by Professor Saunders, for detailed discussion of the written report.

This is true also of the oral statements and answers which may be given in supplementing a written report.

DEFINITION AND TYPES OF REPORTS

Differences from explanations. As intimated above, a report is an oral or written discussion embodying the results of an investigation into some specific topic. It differs from the explanation in that the latter is not ordinarily the outcome of any specific investigation, made for a particular purpose. It is like the explanation in that clearness and conciseness are the most important qualities. Another, and an important difference between the report and the explanation is that the explanation is usually given to someone less qualified in a technical way than the speaker, whereas the report is often rendered to an individual or group of specialists, as highly trained as the speaker. This means that the speaker need take fewer pains to use the principle of the familiar, and that he should give greater attention to concreteness and to the presentation of details. He may assume, ordinarily, that his audience is well qualified to understand technical terms.

Variety of types. Reports may be made upon a great variety of subjects, but for the purposes of convenient classification we adopt the grouping used by Professor Saunders in *Effective Business English,* pages 488, 489:

1. Period report, which gives a history of past activities.
2. Examination report, which gives a statement of facts, past and present, as a basis for estimates and forecasts.
3. Research report, which is an investigation of conditions—usually of the physical characteristics of materials, and substitutions, not connected with any immediate problem.

The period report is illustrated by the two speeches which we reproduce at the end of this chapter, one on the condition of business of a large insurance company and one on the use of internal combustion engines in rail transportation. Both

of these reports deal with past activities, things that have been done.

The examination report may be illustrated by the speech given by R. R. Rau, secretary of the National Retail Furniture Association, on the effect upon the furniture business of the practice of installment selling. This report presented facts which would serve as the basis for estimates and forecasts on the probable future effect of this practice. It served also to assist retail furniture dealers in determining their future policy with respect to this problem. A report giving a survey of the characteristics of a proposed store location would illustrate this type, also. It would present such facts as would serve to guide the prospective store owner in his decision on the site of his future establishment. Needless to say, the examination report is of great value, and should be prepared with the utmost care.

The research report differs from the examination report mainly in that its results are not to be used immediately in the determination of policy. However, such a report may, in the future, serve as the basis of action. The investigation by an engineer of a company using natural gas for its manufacturing processes, with a view to determining the availability and feasibility of using artificial gas for the future, would illustrate this type.

To illustrate further the variety of subjects upon which reports may be made, we present the following specimen topics:

1. Sales analysis of a particular territory for a particular article.
2. Uses and possible advantages of a new manufacturing, office, or advertising device.
3. Engineering report on a construction project (such as the report of the Joint Commission of Engineers on the St. Lawrence Canal Project).
4. Survey of courses in argumentation (or in any other subject) offered in colleges in the United States.
5. Health survey of a community.

6. Report on the Community Chest as used in Illinois cities.
7. Annual report of the president of an educational institution, charitable organization, or business concern.
8. Study of new sales methods used by retailers in a specific line of business.
9. Surveys of city zoning practices, traffic laws, sewage disposal methods, water supply, or flood protection.
10. Report on employee-ownership projects of corporations.

This list is merely suggestive. Almost any process, method, article, material, or organized activity may at some time or another be the subject of an oral report. The business man will be fully cognizant of the problems in his line of work which need investigation. The student of business should seek to determine what some of these problems are in the field in which he is interested. Thus he will find many subjects which he may investigate for the purpose of gaining practice in report making.

GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS

Clearness. This is a positive necessity in making a successful report. It is true, as stated above, that the speaker is usually addressing an audience which is well acquainted with the general nature of the subject and familiar with the technical or trade terms involved; but on the other hand, the audience does not possess the detailed knowledge which the speaker has gained through his research. This new information must be made clear if the purpose of the report is to be achieved. The speech as a whole should be well outlined, and the main ideas presented in definite terms and in good order. The details should be clearly related to the main topic which they develop. Ample reiteration should be used. When facts are to be presented with which the audience is not familiar, the speaker should see to it that the principle of the familiar is employed. To this end, comparisons may be used.

Concreteness. Concreteness assumes a position of vital importance in giving reports. If a speaker who has investigated the possibilities of a store location reports merely that "many people pass this store every day," he is failing in his duty. He should know how many people pass the location, whether they are pedestrians or motorists, what kind of people they are, and how the movement of traffic varies with the hours. The whole purpose of research into a specific problem is to get information that is exact and precise, not vague and general. Throughout the oral report, the statements of the speaker should be nailed down with concrete facts. Specific cases and statistics play, therefore, the most important rôle in such speeches.

Completeness. Closely allied to concreteness as a vital element in reports is completeness. Every relevant phase of the topic should be investigated and presented. To revert to the illustration of a report on the proposed location of a store, the speaker should present many topics other than that of the amount of traffic. The nature of the neighborhood from an economic standpoint, the character of stores in the same block or district, the nearness of competing stores, the condition of the building, the cost and terms of the lease, and many other subjects, must be considered. In every case, the speaker must determine what topics bear importantly on the subject of his report. He must be exhaustive in his treatment of the subject, else his report will be unsatisfactory. The need of completeness will often lead the speaker to present more main ideas than he would in making another type of talk. The oral report is an exception to the general rule that the main ideas should be few. Careful grouping of ideas, however, into a few large headings, will enable one presenting a report to avoid confusion in the hearers' minds.

PREPARING A REPORT

Defining and investigating the problem. A careful definition of the problem to be studied is the first step in effective

preparation of a report. If the report is to be on the possible uses of a new chemical compound, the first step would be to ascertain the exact nature of that compound. If it is to be on the traffic laws of a certain city, the first step would be to determine exactly what matters are regulated by those laws. If it is to be on the needs of a concern for a new accounting system, the present accounting system should be analyzed. The investigator must, in a word, find what his problem includes. Equally important, he must *delimit* his problem, by excluding all irrelevant matters from consideration. If he is to report on mass physical education in schools and colleges in Ohio, he would first exclude all selective and competitive sports from consideration.

Having defined and delimited his problem, he must determine the method or methods of investigation. The nature of the problem should indicate to some extent the methods most appropriate. Observation, experimentation, interviewing and correspondence, or reading may be demanded. All of these sources of information should be considered as possible fields of investigation. The discussion in Chapter VII on the problem of gathering material, should be re-read at this point. In recording information gathered by any of the methods, special care should be taken to insure accuracy and completeness.

The specific purpose. This, of course, is determined by the speaker's definition and delimitation of his problem. It is to make clear to the audience the results of the investigation, as defined and delimited. In determining his exact purpose, the speaker should, as usual, consider the time allotted to him and the nature of the audience he is addressing.

The main ideas. As indicated in the discussion of the quality of *completeness,* the oral report may, and often does, contain more main ideas than the ordinary speech. By grouping the topics of his report as well as possible, however, the speaker may avoid the confusion which might arise from the presentation of too many headings. If it is a period

report, covering a period of thirty years, for instance, the subject might be presented in terms of decades rather than of single years. If it is an examination report, dealing with the desirability of adopting a new manufacturing technique, the grouping might be accomplished by discussing the nature of the technique, the possible advantages to be gained by adopting it, and the costs involved.

In presenting period reports, the chronological order is sometimes, although by no means always, desirable. A company official reporting on the business of the concern for the past year *might* use the month-to-month, or quarter-to-quarter order; but often his report would be more concise and intelligible if he discussed the year by topics or departments, such as volume of business, costs, profits, labor relations, and the like. It is a good general rule to avoid the chronological order if the selective order is at all feasible.

In presenting examination and research reports, the chronological order is rarely desirable. The important topics relating to the subject, as determined by the speaker's definition of his problem, usually should constitute the main ideas. The writer reported several years ago to the National Association of Teachers of Speech on the subject, *Courses in Argumentation in Colleges of the United States*. The order of ideas was as follows:

Courses offered in argumentation.
Prerequisites and credits.
Teaching methods and textbooks.
Relation of courses to intercollegiate debates.
Recommendations for betterment of courses and texts.
Recommendations for research in the field of argument.

Speech details. Since concreteness is desired, specific cases and statistics should make up the bulk of the material of reports. Reiteration should be used liberally to keep the main points of the report before the hearers. Testimony and comparison are of relatively less importance.

Use of charts. To make statistics clear the speaker may use charts and maps. These may employ curves, lines,

masses, and tables of figures. Similarly, maps, drawings, sketches, and diagrams may be used. In making charts for oral presentation, the speaker must take care that the figures or letters are large enough to be seen by the most distant members of the audience, and that they are not too complex to be readily interpreted. The charts used by J. Burnett Gibb, Actuary of the Penn Mutual Insurance Company, in presenting his report on the condition of the company's business, should be studied carefully. They reveal adherence to these suggestions.

In presenting charts, it is important that the speaker have them well enough in mind so that he does not have to turn his back upon the audience while explaining them. He should stand at one side of his chart, indicating points of interest on it by means of a ruler or pointer, and all the while maintaining eye-contact with his hearers. It is, as a rule, better to keep charts and similar exhibits covered or out of sight until the time of presentation, in order that the attention of the audience may not be distracted from what the speaker is saying.

Models and demonstrations. In explaining the working of technical devices, the use of models, or of actual demonstrations, takes the place of charts. Where this is feasible, it aids clearness.

Printed and mimeographed material. Instead of using charts, the speaker may pass out printed or mimeographed material conveying the information he desires to stress. This material should be assembled and organized so that it is clear and readily comprehensible. Usually, the speaker should wait until the appropriate moment in his speech before distributing it.

Introduction. The introduction of an oral report may include any or all of the following material:

1. A statement of the exact subject under discussion.
2. A statement of the reasons why the investigation was undertaken.

3. A summary of the methods used in gathering material, such as experimentation, observation, interviews, correspondence, and reading.

Ordinarily, the speaker may assume that his hearers are interested in his subject, since they usually constitute an audience of specialists, and therefore none of the special devices for opening to gain attention need be used, save a businesslike conciseness.

Conclusion. The conclusion of an oral report should usually summarize the main points brought out in the discussion. It may also include the speaker's recommendations on what ought to be done in the premises. If the conclusion contains recommendations, the speaker should give attention to the use of appeal to wants. This appeal to wants should be linked with the facts brought out in the body of the report.

Manner of presentation. As in the case of explanations, the presentation should be direct, conversational, and businesslike. Care should be taken to enunciate clearly, and to reach all members of the audience with the voice. A quiet and concise manner, rather than vigorous action and impassioned exhortation, should be used. The object is primarily understanding, not persuasion.

TYPICAL ORAL REPORTS

The two oral reports which follow are typical. The first, given at the third session of the convention of the Eastern Region of the Penn Mutual Insurance Company, Swampscott, Massachusetts, September 11, 1926, by J. Burnett Gibb, then the company's actuary, illustrates the effective presentation of statistical information. The second, delivered March 1, 1926, before the Heavy Electric Transportation Class at the Westinghouse Club, Pittsburgh, and before the Pennsylvania Section, S.A.E. at Philadelphia, March 8, 1926, by A. H. Candee, Westinghouse Railway Engineer,

exemplifies the quality of concreteness attained by specific cases and statistics.

THE STRENGTH OF OUR COMPANY [2]

Volumes might be written on this subject, for the fabric of our strength is woven of many threads. Detailed analysis of such matters as the safety and income yield of our investments would undoubtedly impress us greatly and add to our conception of the Company's strength, but would not be of much aid to the solicitor in canvassing. There are certain salient features of the Company's financial statement, however, which are frequently used with telling effect in the sales talk and with which the Agents should all become familiar.

Some charts have been prepared, which I shall present to you, depicting the Company's progress and strength in several departments. The first few of these charts show the progress made in recent years in that large part of our organization devoted to the production of new business and building up the service rendered by the company to the insuring public. Here we have a series of four charts, showing, for each of the last six years: first, the amount of new insurance placed in force during the year; second, the percentage of the amount of insurance terminated by lapse during the year to the mean amount of insurance in force; third, the total amount of insurance in force at the end of the year; and, fourth, the gain made during the year in the total amount of insurance in force.

It should be remarked that quite unusual conditions prevailed in the year 1920, which aided in producing a very large amount of new business and a very low lapse rate. Omitting that year we see a very steady record of progress and from all indications, the year 1926 will add to these pictures just what we would hope to find, that is, a larger amount of new business and a lower lapse rate than for the year 1925. Speaking for the Actuary's Department, which is in charge of the Home Office work of conservation, I will say that we have been very much pleased with the continuing improvement in the lapse ratios and recognize that it is a result not only of better knowledge as to methods of handling this problem, but also of greater coordination of the efforts of the Field and the Home Office in this important work.

The next two charts deal with the Company's mortality experience during a period of years.

---

[2] By J. Burnett Gibb, from the *Penn Mutual News Letter*, July, 1927.

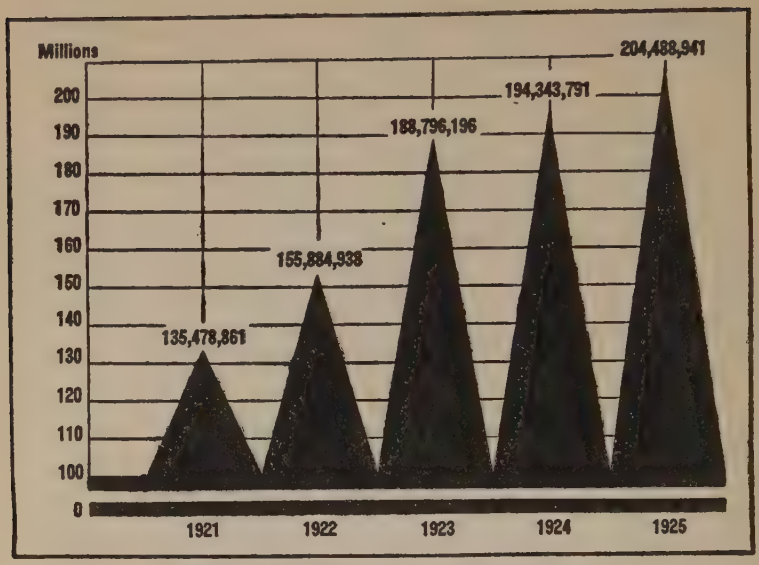

Figure 6: New business paid for 1921 to 1925.

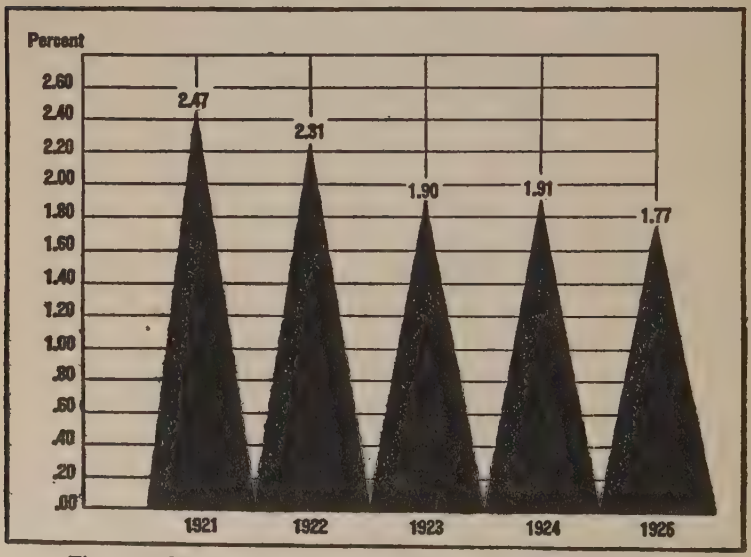

Figure 7: Percentage of lapses to the main insurance in force.

The first of these shows the percentage of the actual mortality to that permitted by the mortality table for each year from 1913 to 1926, inclusive. The very high percentage in the year 1918 is, of course, a result of the epidemic of influenza-pneumonia which occurred at that time. Leaving that factor out, we see a decided townward tendency in the mortality percentage.

Turning to the second of these mortality charts, we see the results grouped into five-year periods. In this we again see the distinct downward tendency, first making allowance for the heavy strain of the aforementioned epidemic, here represented by the shaded portion. The downward trend of the mortality is largely the result of a decision on the part of the Company Management some years ago to take such steps as would result in this reduction, thus keeping in line with other companies.

The next chart shows the Company's dividend payments during the last five years.

This shows a steady and very satisfactory growth in the dividends to policyholders from 18.8% of premium income in 1921 to 25% in 1925. The increases in dividends have not prevented the Company from strengthening its contingency reserves (sometimes called "surplus") as may be seen by looking at the next and last of these charts.

This shows the percentage of contingency reserves to what might be termed "policy liabilities" for each of the last five years and shows a remarkable increase from 3.7% in 1921 to 8.6% in 1925. This latter percentage is very good and bears satisfactory comparison with that of other companies. We should go a bit further, however, and bear in mind that our Company values its assets more conservatively at market values and also might be considered to be carrying additional safety reserves in having placed all of its business (both insurance and annuities) on the highest reserve standard permitted by the State laws. With these factors taken into consideration, it can be stated positively that our Company's financial strength is unsurpassed.

Are we not, therefore, facing the future with bright prospects? And are we not in a position to sell our Company's policies with a feeling of assurance that the membership of the policyholder in the Company will be an enduring source of satisfaction to him?

In figures 6, 7, 8, and 9 are reproductions of four of the charts used by Mr. Gibb. They were well designed for oral presentation.

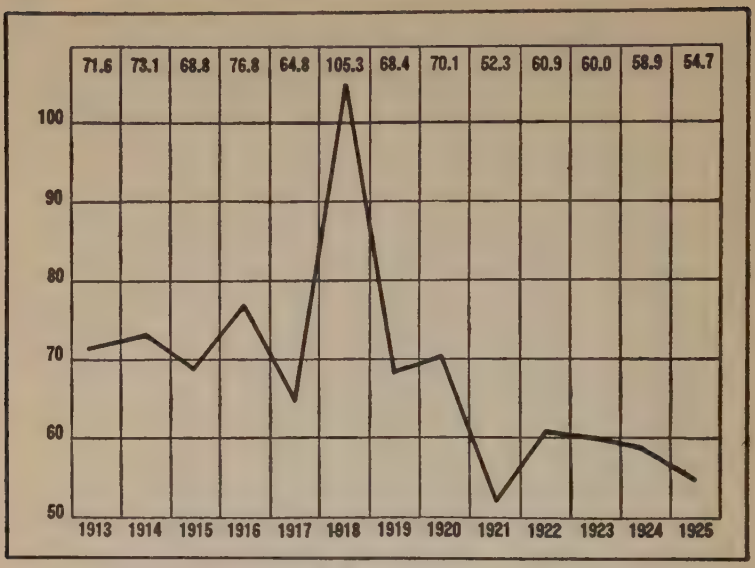

Figure 8: Percentage of actual to expected mortality.

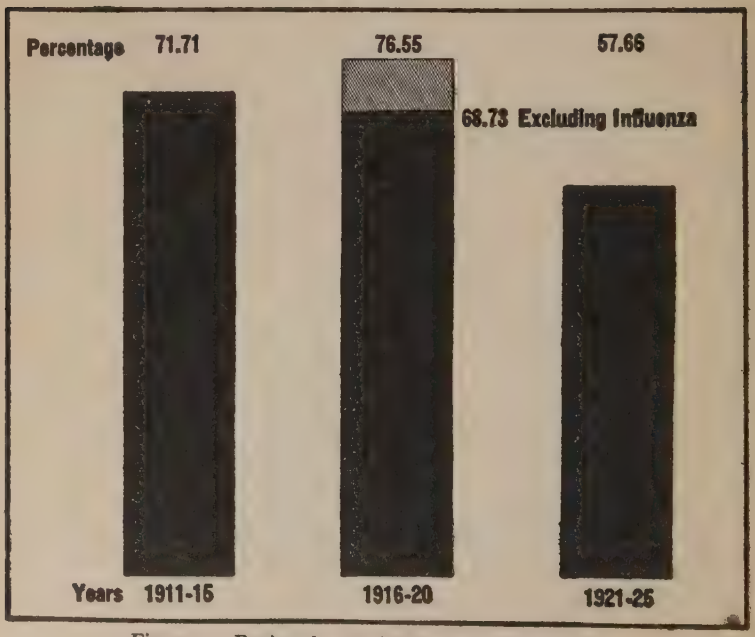

Figure 9: Ratio of actual to expected mortality.

USE OF INTERNAL COMBUSTION ENGINES IN RAIL TRANSPORTATION [3]

The application of internal combustion engines to railway propulsion is merely the application to practice of basic economic principles. If we analyze the factors contributing to our present-day civilization and prosperity it will be found that the application of efficient machines or tools to save human labor has been responsible in a large measure for this condition. Another factor is the efficient use of our natural resources. Further, a large measure of our present prosperity may be attributed to the division between labor and capital of the savings in labor by their proper use.

When we speak of machines and tools we naturally think in terms of factories and machine shops, but if you will consider it from a slightly different angle you will find that railroads are also manufacturers. Their product is ton-miles and passenger-miles. The measure of the effectiveness of the railroads as manufacturers is the sale price of their products as against the cost of production and they should therefore be interested in any tool which will increase the differential between price received and cost to produce. As a matter of fact, the individuals making up the organization should be especially interested because it is an economic fact that as a class their purchasing power can be increased only by greater production for a given amount of labor.

The railroads of this country have reached their tremendous proportions only by the use of that effective, reliable and spectacular tool—the steam locomotive. Were the steam locomotive less reliable and versatile than it is the growth of our nation would have been stunted and the west might still be wild and woolly. It is with a sense of pride and respect that we refer to our railroads as "steam" roads.

The present-day steam locomotive is the result of 100 years of development, considerable of the detail refinement having occurred within the past decade. The future also holds promise of further improvement by the use of higher steam pressures, steam turbines and condensers. Any new form of motive power enters the field under very severe handicap and must be thoroughly tried and proven before it will be given serious consideration by the steam roads, so that the interest taken by the railroads in propulsion by means of the internal combustion engine is exceedingly encouraging to those who advocate this motive power.

---

[3] By A. H. Candee.

The steam locomotive has lost the race for supremacy in some particular classes of service. I refer to electrifications such as the New York, New Haven and Hartford; Norfolk & Western; Virginian; Pennsylvania; Chicago, Milwaukee and St. Paul; Long Island, and others. Here the operating economies and advantages have been proven beyond doubt. There are many other places in the country where electrification will do as much and show equal operating advantages, but for the large bulk of the present steam operated mileage the steam locomotive cannot yet be displaced.

It has been within our lifetime that the tremendous possibilities of liquid fuels have been realized. The application of the internal combustion engine to millions of highway vehicles, to ships and in stationary service has proved it to be a thoroughly effective and reliable tool. Yet considerable development and research work will be necessary before it can be generally adopted to replace steam locomotives. We are beginning to learn how to build light-weight high-speed engines, but there is still a great deal to do.

Gasoline and Diesel engines have already been applied in quantity for rail propulsion duty and have proven reliable and practical for rail car service at least. In this field the Patton Motor Car Company built a car in 1890 powered with a small gasoline engine and electrical transmission. A gasoline car with mechanical transmission was built in Württemberg, Germany, in 1893 and a similar model was operated in Chicago in 1899. Extensive development was started in the motor car field in 1900 and 1901, led by the French Westinghouse Company. During that time the McKeen car, the Strang car and the General Electric car first appeared.

In 1902 the first extensive application of gasoline driven cars was made by the French Westinghouse to the Arad-Csanad lines in Hungary, their number being supplemented from time to time until there were approximately 70 in operation in 1912. The latest reports indicate that of these there are approximately 50 still in serviceable condition.

The McKeen car with its mechanical form of transmission has survived and there are numbers still in operation today. The Strang car fell by the wayside, probably due to the fact that it was somewhat complicated by the use of a storage battery as a supplementary source of power. The General Electric car survived and approximately 88 of these were built. From available reports it is estimated that approximately 70 of these are still in operation.

Due to war activities and our subsequent entry the gasoline car development slowed down and finally stopped from 1914 to 1920. It may be noted, however, that prior to the war the chief obstacles to unqualified success were due to engine designs.

The war brought about marked advances in engine designs. About 1920, with increased operating costs, the railroads reopened the question of gasoline rail cars and a number of light-weight units were constructed. The first of these were simply highway trucks with flanged wheels instead of rubber-tired wheels. These were light in weight and construction. Several modifications and improvements followed, but in general, the experience indicated the necessity of more power and heavier car construction, also that very definite economies were effected.

The next major step was the construction of the Brill model 55 car. This conformed more closely to the ideas of the railroads and was found to be thoroughly practical for light branch line service. A very satisfactory form of mechanical drive had been worked out and this contributed materially to the success of the car.

A number of small cars sprang up almost overnight, but the demand for small cars had passed the zenith due to demands of the railroads for more power and trailer hauling capacity. Next the Brill brought out their models 65 and 75 with horsepowers as high as 190 and the Syke mechanical drive car appeared with its 175-horsepower engine. The Electromotive Company then applied electrical transmission to a 175-horsepower engine, while the Brill Company appeared with a 250-horsepower engine with electrical transmission. Every one of these cars proved themselves reliable where properly applied.

There are between 450 and 500 gasoline-driven rail cars now in operation in this country. It may be noted in passing that the electrical form of transmission has been selected for the large majority of all cars bought within the past two years.

The Diesel engine apparently appeared on a car in a commercial way in Sweden about 1913. Their use has not spread very rapidly in Europe as there are probably not more than 25 or 30 of these cars operating there at present. The first oil-engined cars appeared on this continent in 1925 when the Canadian National Railways built two cars, each powered with a Beardmore 8-cylinder solid injection oil engine of 400-horsepower capacity. This engine is a modification of the Beardmore aircraft oil engine. These two were followed by seven cars each powered with 4-cylinder engines of half the capacity of the first engines. The success of these units has been such that they have recently placed an

order with the Beardmore Company for 5 more engines of 6-cylinder size, 300-horsepower capacity.

There have been numerous attempts to produce oil-engined locomotives within the past seven years, but only in the smaller sizes have they met with any degree of success. In these sizes, however, they have proved the economies of this type of motive power. There are numerous large locomotives now proposed or under construction and the next two or three years will see some long strides taken. The locomotive field, however, holds greater promise for the manufacturer than the rail car, for where there is a possible demand for but 3,500 to 5,000 rail cars, there are 75,000 steam locomotives to replace if the steam men let us do it.

In considering the economies of the situation we have reliable operating results only on rail cars. Where steam train costs on branch lines vary from $0.75 to $1.50 per train mile, with an average of from $0.90 to $1.00 we find we can handle the service by gasoline engines at a train mile cost varying between $0.30 to $0.60 with an average approximating $0.36 to $0.40, including fixed charges. Oil-engine-driven trains will operate between $0.25 and $0.50 per train mile with an average of $0.33 to $0.35, also including fixed charges. In addition, there are a number of indirect returns which are exceedingly difficult to evaluate, such as reduced right of way maintenance, reduction of attendant facilities and charges, and improved public relations.

The savings effected by rail car operation are due to saving in crew expense, saving in fuel, reduction of maintenance and attendant charges, and improved availability. The first of these gets right back to the economic principle of greater production per man. The original light-weight car often saved its price within the first year and the modern cars usually require less than two years.

The thermal efficiency of the steam locomotive is admittedly low, averaging not over 6% at the rail. If it were not that we have an abundant coal supply we would have been forced to overcome this handicap long ago, but in spite of the apparently unlimited supply of this fuel we are handicapping posterity by this tremendous waste. France and other European countries are turning to electrification on account of coal costs. How long can we expect to feed our 70,000,000 steam locomotive horsepower at the rate of six cents' worth of actual work for every dollar in fuel?

The thermal efficiency of the gasoline engine power plant is considerably better than that of a steam locomotive, for we can get as high as 20% of the energy of the fuel at the rail. This, of course, does not mean that we can operate at one-third of the fuel

expense for a given service because the cost per pound of fuel is considerably higher than that of coal.

The oil-engine power plant as applied to rail propulsion will operate at an overall thermal efficiency as high as 25%. In addition, the present cost of fuel oil is such that we can save considerable in the total fuel expense by the use of the oil engine.

Comparing the steam locomotive with the internal combustion engine locomotive as to availability for service, statistics show that the average steam passenger locomotive operates 113 miles per day. This is the distance from Pittsburgh to Altoona over the Pennsylvania. Average the daily trains and you will find that the run takes 3¼ hours. This, then, may be taken as the steam passenger locomotive's available time per day, whereas a locomotive with an internal combustion engine plant can easily average from 3 to 4 times this amount.

It is not generally feasible to apply existing standard engines to rail propulsion service. Engines used in automotive work are generally small and lack the necessary stamina. If an engine is found to possess the latter feature it is usually because it has been built for stationary work and is too heavy and large for transportation purposes. It seems necessary, therefore, to design engines for this particular field of application. The speeds must be high to reduce cost and weight and yet reliability and long life are of paramount importance. If you will consider that a year of rail car service is equivalent to ten years' service for your automobile engine you may get a conception of the duty imposed in this field.

In the gasoline engine field, the knowledge necessary to build suitable units is available, but as the present production is small there are few engines on the market. In the oil-engine industry, however, there has been very little accumulated experience suitable for the production of rail propulsion engines, where dimensions and weights are prime considerations. For stationary and marine purposes oil-engine weights run from 60 pounds per horsepower up, whereas for rail vehicle use they must weigh less than 45 pounds and preferable not over 20 pounds per horsepower. Slow speeds are not tolerable because slow speeds mean increased weight in both engine and generator, resulting in further addition of weight and strength of car bodies or locomotive construction, thus pyramiding both cost and weight of the vehicle as a whole.

The general automotive field has been built up around the 4-cycle engine, the cylinders arranged in line or in "V." Aircraft engines are following somewhat different forms, such as radial cylinder arrangements. The preferred form of the locomotive oil engine has not yet been defined, for while the present tendencies

are toward the use of four-cycle engines on account of the available knowledge and experience there are a number of very promising developments being undertaken in the two-cycle field. Solid fuel injection is preferred to the air injection.

The transmission of energy from the engine to the wheels forms a broad subject in itself. In rail cars, when engine sizes were small and a single rear axle was used, the ordinary gear shift form of automotive transmission was sufficient and satisfactory. When weights increased to a point where it became necessary to drive through a 4-wheel swivel truck the mechanical drive became serious. The Brill Company accomplished this very satisfactorily by transmitting power to a set of gears in the truck bolster, driving the wheels from there, so that swivelling of the truck did not seriously affect the drive. In other cars engines were mounted directly on the truck in order to obviate the drive difficulties, in one case the gear shifting and clutch operations being controlled electro-pneumatically.

A mechanical transmission of large size is in use on the Lomonosoff locomotive in Russia. This utilizes magnetic clutches with the gears constantly in mesh. The Boston and Maine Railroad has recently placed an order for one of these 1,600-horsepower mechanical drive locomotives to be built in Europe so that we should soon be able to get some first-hand information as to the operation of this type of drive.

Hydraulic transmission has been tried several times with some degree of success, but at this time does not appear to have a very large field of application in rail service.

The electrical form of transmission embodies qualities which render it the most practical for railway propulsion, especially for engine sizes above 125 horsepower. Below this power there are satisfactory mechanical transmissions and the advantages of the electrical form are discarded for the sake of cheap construction. The essential advantages which make the electrical transmission the most desirable are the smooth flow of power to the wheels regardless of tractive effort or speed, the flexibility of control and application of. power, and the absence of rigid or troublesome mechanical connections between the spring-mounted engine and the wheels.

The present limitations in the application of engine-driven vehicles to rail service are imposed by the size of engine which may be applied to the vehicle. We would like to apply engines of two or three times the horsepower capacity now used, but this is not economically possible on account of weight and cost. It is, therefore, essential that the utmost use be made of the engine which

may be applied. The electrical transmission permits such utilization over a very wide range. Curves show that a 1,250-horsepower locomotive with electrical transmission has better performance throughout than a 1,600-horsepower locomotive with mechanical transmission, even though the losses in the mechanical transmission are claimed to be lower than those of the electrical drive.

To the mechanical man the electrical transmission may seem complicated and mysterious, but as a matter of fact is simple. The engine is directly coupled to a simple generator which furnishes power to propulsion motors geared to the axles. An auxiliary generator also driven by the engine furnishes power for exciting the field of the main generator and also for charging a small storage battery used for engine starting and car lighting. The control of power is also simple. With gasoline engines this is usually accomplished simply by varying the engine speed, automatic adjustment of the current and voltage being built into the apparatus. With the oil engine, which does not have as wide a range of speed control, it is sometimes necessary to make a few generator field adjustments before raising the engine speed, but this involves very little complication and occurs automatically with movement of the throttle control lever.

There are, of course, numerous variations of these schemes of control and they merely demonstrate the extreme flexibility of the system. It may be stated, however, that electrical designers realize the importance to the railroads of electrical simplicity and are bending their efforts toward that end.

In the electrical system of power transmission as in any other system, the problem of the auxiliaries is troublesome. Pressure air for the brakes must be provided and also cooling air for the radiators. Batteries must be charged and in some cases heat and light provided for trailing cars. It is these auxiliaries which cause a large part of the apparent complication in the self-propelled vehicle and yet these auxiliaries must be provided for, whatever the system of transmission employed.

In the application of engined cars or locomotives to rail service we first face the fact that we are dealing with limited power. We find that rail cars of 250 horsepower are called upon to handle services formerly handled by steam locomotives of 800- to 1,000-horsepower capacity and they can often do it surprisingly well. It is also found that in a great many cases the railroads call for cars which can reach a balancing speed considerably in excess of that required to handle any normal branch line service. The psychological effect of being able to attain a 60-mile per hour speed is wonderful but it imposes restrictions on the trailer capacity.

In an electrification project the service duty imposed upon the electrical equipment can be accurately calculated and adhered to. In the case of the internal combustion vehicle, though, it is necessary to design for general service and a wide variety of conditions such as may confront steam locomotives. This means that equipment size is often in excess of that required for specific applications.

No reference has been made to the internal combustion engine as applied to highway vehicles in railway service. It is well recognized that both the bus and the truck are now very important adjuncts to rail transportation. Undoubtedly their use will expand considerably, for, after all, the real business of the railroads is transportation, whether by rail, water or highways, and by proper coordination of such systems the best interests of the nation will be served.

In closing, let us review briefly the motive power situation as it appears to be developing. In the first place, the steam locomotive is not seriously threatened in the near future, but its position will depend upon the rate of progress which its designers can provide. It will be supplanted in a number of places by electrification, because the latter can show economies of operation which cannot be attained by steam or the internal combustion engine. The latter will undoubtedly supplant steam in the near future on light traffic lines, in yard switching service and where fuel and water are hard to obtain. Beyond that developments and service will govern its expansion in the locomotive field.

X

THE SALES OR PROMOTIONAL TALK

Purpose of this chapter. Definition. Action the object. Planning sales or promotional talks. The specific purpose. Choosing the ideas. Developing the ideas. Introduction. Conclusion. Presentation of a sales talk. A good promotional talk.

VOLUMES have been written on the psychological and rhetorical problems of salesmanship. Clearly, a single chapter can not deal exhaustively with all of these matters, nor attempt to take account of all possible situations in which the salesman may find himself. Part I of this work, in its entirety, deals with principles of persuasive speaking which apply to selling; Part III, on the personal conference, contains many detailed suggestions, all of which relate to the sales conference. The purpose of this chapter, then, is not to deal with all aspects of the subject of personal selling, but rather to set forth the methods which should be used in planning a talk to be given to an individual, group or larger audience with the purpose of making sales or of laying the foundation for future sales. In broad outline, the methods of planning a talk of this kind may be applied to personal selling.

THE SALES OR PROMOTIONAL TALK DEFINED

Action the object. The sales or promotional talk has *action* as its object. The action desired is often an immediate one, such as "Buy this insurance policy," "Purchase this car," "Subscribe to this set of books," or "Join this lecture class in effective speaking." However, many talks which deserve to be classified as sales talks have ultimate, rather than immediate purchase as the goal. "Let us survey your plant equipment with a view to making recommendations for

its modernization," is a specific purpose which requires the application of the same persuasive methods as those mentioned above.

Many speeches which seek to arouse interest or curiosity with a view to eventual sales are called promotional talks. When the travelling passenger agent of a railroad talks on the business opportunities in the territory contiguous to his company's line he is indirectly seeking business for his company. When the representative of a chamber of commerce speaks on the industrial development of the city in which he serves, he is attempting to "sell" the city to his audience. When a representative of the electric utilities industry speaks on the growth and development of superpower, or on the progress in the appliances field, he is seeking to presuade members of his audience to patronize his industry. The promotional talk is thus but a variation of the direct sales talk. It is becoming increasingly important as associations of the great utility, railroad, and other industries are tending to stress the development of better public relations.

PLANNING SALES OR PROMOTIONAL TALKS

The specific purpose. Especial attention should be given to the selection and limitation of the specific purpose. The speaker must first consider the possibility of persuading his audience to take immediate action. If a sale can be made, or similar favorable action secured, he should attempt it. He will be guided in his decision by his analysis of his audience and subject. If he decides that the "closing" of the sale must await personal conferences, or a later speech, he must decide exactly what reaction he can hope to get from his hearers. Ordinarily, this action should be of as definite a kind as the speaker deems attainable. He should seek to get the audience to take some definite step, either *en masse* or as individuals, which will commit them to further investigation, or which will permit of personal solicitation by the speaker or his representatives after the speech. It is a sound use of

the principle of suggestion to get some group action, such as the showing of hands to indicate interest, or the signing of a petition or letter of inquiry, or whatever else may be practicable under the circumstances. Even the precise nature of this group action is not as important as the mere fact of group action. "Get them to do something together" is a principle which every promotional speaker should observe. Individual action, such as the granting of appointments for interviews, and the like, is also of value to the speaker, provided a reasonable number of those present take such action. Speakers will find it true that if one or two individuals in a group can be led to take affirmative action, the suggestion created by their behavior will lead others to act similarly.

The wording of the specific purpose in cases where direct sales are sought is obvious. It is, "To persuade these hearers to buy this article or service." The wording of the specific purpose when what we may call "delayed action" is desired demands more illustration. Following are some purposes of this kind:

1. Let our representative call and explain our new offering of bonds.
2. Interview our representative about the new farm lands along the X railroad in Montana.
3. Make an appointment to discuss the employers' liability insurance plan.
4. Call on our dealer for a demonstration of this car.
5. Send for the prospectus of the XYZ Company.
6. Write for our special catalogue.
7. Get the details of our new merchandising plan.
8. Write for complete explanation of our farm lighting sales proposal.
9. Attend the mass meeting at which our new lodge building is to be discussed.
10. Attend Professor Brown's free lecture on applied psychology.
11. Hear Mr. Downing talk on cooperative marketing.

Choosing the ideas. Having determined the specific pur-

pose, the speaker must plan a persuasive talk which, in view of his analysis of the hearer, will prove effective. It goes without saying that the first step in all salesmanship, group or personal, written or oral, is a thorough knowledge of the article, goods, or service to be sold. Without such expert knowledge, the salesman can enjoy at best a limited success. Assuming such knowledge to be present, the selection of the main ideas to be presented in the talk is the most vital problem which confronts the speaker. In the language of the older books on salesmanship, "the ideas must interest, convince, and move" the hearer. Interest, conviction, and persuasion are in a sense synonymous terms. If the interest aroused by the speaker's ideas is great enough, conviction and action follow. *Each main idea must be interesting, it must be convincing, it must move to action.*

One of the best ways to get started in the choice of main ideas is to ask yourself, "Why should these particular hearers want to take the action I desire?" A careful answer to this question will lead the speaker to put himself in the hearer's place, and to think of "reasons why" which will appeal to the hearer. Each main idea should give some good reason why the hearer should wish to act.

We may repeat here that "no appeal to reason, without being at the same time an appeal to wants," is ever successful. In making sales and promotional talks, logical reasoning alone is not enough. There must be the want-appeal. Hence a matter of vital importance is to determine what wants, ambitions, or desires of the hearers may be satisfied by the article which the speaker is seeking to sell. Care must be exercised, further, in the adaptation of these want-appeals to the specific audience. One student of the writer's once talked to the sophomore class in business and professional speaking, on the subject, "Buy a life rate endowment policy," and his reasons for this action were "1. It will benefit your wife and children. 2. It is a good safe policy." This student overlooked the important fact that not a member of the audience possessed a wife or children!

The "college boy"—he may or may not be matriculated in an institution of higher learning—who comes to the front door and says, "Mrs. Brown, I'm working my way through college, and I want you to subscribe for the Literary Loops magazine because it will help me to win a contest for a scholarship," is betraying a similar lack of judgment in the selection of main ideas. He has failed to grasp the importance of the hearer's point of view. Mrs. Brown may be much interested in getting light reading matter, but is not interested in a sales contest in which she has no part.

An insurance salesman of experience made a similar mistake in dealing with the writer some months ago. He used as an argument for an immediate signing of the application blank that this action would enable him to fill his sales quota for the year. The application was not signed! All such mistakes would be avoided if the speaker would consider carefully what appeals to wants will be effective with the specific audience.

Next in importance to the adaptation of want-appeals to the audience is the use of variety in motives. If the reader will refer to page 36, Chapter III, he will note that some of the wants listed are selfish while others are unselfish. Some people are moved more easily by the selfish wants, while others are more influenced by the unselfish. With some people appeals to both must be used. In most cases, however, both the selfish and the unselfish appeals may be used. It is frequently true, that after the interest of an audience has been aroused by an exposition of the material profits which will follow a certain course of action, the final commitment to act may be secured by showing that higher wants will also be served. An example in political oratory of this use of both the selfish and the idealistic motives is former President Wilson's speech on the declaration of war with Germany. Those who heard or read this notable address will remember that it began with a recital of the destruction of American life and property by submarine attack, and then swept into a compelling appeal for action on the ground that

"we will be fighting for the things we have always held most dear"—democracy, the rights of smaller nations, the spreading of American ideals, and the like. This speech, more than any other utterance, "sold the war" to America.

Developing the ideas. With the vital matter of the choice of main ideas decided, the speaker must plan to develop those ideas so effectively that they will gain complete acceptance by the audience. All sorts of details may be used—comparisons, specific cases, expert testimony, reiteration, and statistics. The speaker should make a special effort, however, to use the persuasive principles discussed in Part One. Besides the want-appeal, the concrete, the varied, the striking, and the familiar must be used, and used well. Imagery and suggestion should be utilized to the fullest extent. *In short, all of the principles discussed in Part One apply to the sales or promotional talk.*

Introduction. In the introduction, the speaker should ordinarily utilize the concrete or the striking as means of getting favorable attention. It is usually inadvisable to begin by a direct statement of purpose, for such a beginning tends to arouse "sales resistance" in the minds of the audience. If, however, the audience is already well disposed toward the speaker and his subject, a simple statement of purpose may be used. The introduction should be vivid, but brief. If a specific case or comparison is selected as the means of opening, the speaker should be sure that it is vivid, in other words that it employs the striking and the concrete, and that it applies directly to the theme of the speech. Considerable thought should be given to the exact wording of at least the first few sentences of such a beginning, in order that it may be clear and fast-moving. Bruce Barton's introduction to the promotional talk printed at the end of this chapter illustrates the effective use of comparison. Not only specific cases and comparisons, but occasionally some impressive or striking statistics, or a vivid statement by some recognized expert, may be used as means of opening a speech. In the sales talk, at least, any of these methods is preferable to a

colorless statement of subject and purpose. In the absence of vivid material for the opening, the speaker may begin by stressing the importance of his subject to the audience. This, of course, may be combined with the striking opening. Finally, just as a direct statement of purpose is usually inadvisable in the introduction of the sales talk, so it is usually not desirable to announce what the main ideas are to be. The talk will be more interesting, and give an impression of greater spontaneity, if the exact statement of main ideas is left for the body of the speech.

Conclusion. The conclusion should formally or informally sum up the reasons for action. The audience should be reminded of the benefits which it will secure by buying, subscribing, or by similar action. In the conclusion, too, the speaker should make sure that the audience, having been led to a desire to act, knows exactly what to do, and how and when to do it. Finally, a motivated appeal for favorable decision by the hearers may be made. Thus we may say that the possible functions of the conclusion of the sales talk are summary, instruction, and appeal. Which of these possible functions the conclusion should fulfill depends upon what, in the speaker's judgment, is necessary.

Presentation of a sales talk. A review of the chapter on Effective Oral Presentation in Part One will reveal that all of the principles of good speaking may be employed in presenting a sales talk. The fundamental qualities of communicativeness, sincerity, and animation must be present in a high degree, and such matters as platform conduct, adaptation to the hearer, judging the hearer's reaction, and the like, all find a useful place. A good sales talk, as indicated above, is a highly-developed persuasive speech, making use of all of the principles which tend to move an audience.

A GOOD PROMOTIONAL TALK

The speech which we have selected as representative of the sales and promotional talk is Bruce Barton's *Which*

Knew Not Joseph, a speech delivered before the Public Relations Section of the National Electric Light Association, in New York, 1923. Mr. Barton, who is the head of a large advertising agency in New York, employs almost all of the principles of persuasive speaking in this address. Particularly notable is his use of comparison, of imagery, and of humor. The sales appeal is, because of the nature of the audience and the situation, indirect, but nevertheless everything in the speech contributes toward the attainment of the speaker's specific purpose, which is, "Use the services of advertising experts to facilitate your public relations work."

WHICH KNEW NOT JOSEPH[1]

There are two stories—and neither of them is new—which I desire to tell you, because they have a direct application to everyone's business. The first concerns a member of my profession, an advertising man, who was in the employ of a circus. It was his function to precede the circus into various communities, distribute tickets to the editor, put up on the barn pictures of the bearded lady and the man-eating snakes, and finally to get in touch with the proprietor of some store and persuade him to purchase the space on either side of the elephant for his advertisement in the parade.

Coming one day to a crossroads town, our friend found that there was only one store. The proprietor did not receive him enthusiastically. "Why should I advertise?" he demanded. "I have been here for twenty years. There isn't a man, woman or child around these parts that doesn't know where I am and what I sell." The advertising man answered very promptly (because in our business if we hesitate we are lost), and he said to the proprietor, pointing across the street, "What is that building over there?" The proprietor answered, "That is the Methodist Episcopal Church." The advertising man said, "How long has that been there?" The proprietor said, "Oh, I don't know; seventy-five years probably." *"And yet,"* exclaimed the advertising man, *"they ring the church bell every Sunday morning."*

My second story has also a religious flavor. It relates to a gentleman named Joseph, who is now deceased.

[1] By Bruce Barton. By permission of the author.

Those of you who were brought up on the Bible may have found there some account of his very remarkable business career. Those of you who have not read that book may have heard of Joseph through the works of Rudyard Kipling.

Said Mr. Kipling:

Who shall doubt the secret hid
Under Cheops' pyramid
Was that the contractor did
Cheops out of several millions.
And that Joseph's sudden rise
To comptroller of supplies
Was a graft of monstrous size
Worked on Pharaoh's swart civilians.

The account of Joseph in the Old Testament is much more complete and to his credit. It tells how he left his country under difficulties, and, coming into a strange country, he rose, through his diligence, to become the principal person in the state, second only to the King. Now, gentlemen, the Biblical narrative brings us to that point—the point where Joseph had public relations with all the other ancient nations, while his private relations held all the best-paying jobs—it brings us up to the climax of his career and then it hands us an awful jolt. Without any words of preparation or explanation, it says bluntly:

"And Joseph died, and there arose a new king in Egypt which knew not Joseph."

I submit, gentlemen, that this is one of the most staggering lines which has ever been written in a business biography. Here was a man so famous that everybody knew him and presto, a few people die, a few new ones are born, and *nobody* knows him. The tide of human life has moved on; the king who exalted the friends of Joseph is followed by a king who makes them slaves; all the advertising that the name "Joseph" had enjoyed in one generation is futile and of no avail, *because that generation is gone.*

Now, what has all that to do with you? Very much indeed. When we gathered in this room this afternoon, there were in this country, in bed, sick, several thousand old men. It perhaps is indelicate for me to refer to that fact, but it is a fact, and we are grown up and we have to face these things. On those old men you gentlemen collectively have spent a considerable amount of time and a considerable amount of money. It is to be supposed that you have made some impression upon them regarding your service and your purposes and your necessities. But in this interval, while we have been sitting here, those old men have died,

and all your time and all your money and whatever you have built up in the way of good-will in their minds—*all* your labor and investment have passed out with them.

In the same brief interval, there have been born in this country several thousand lusty boys and girls to whom you gentlemen mean no more than the Einstein theory. They do not know the difference between a Mazda lamp and a stick of Wrigley's chewing gum. Nobody has ever told them that Ivory Soap floats or that children cry for Castoria, or what sort of soap you ought to use if you want to have a skin that people would like to touch. The whole job of giving them the information they are going to need in order to form an intelligent public opinion and to exercise an intelligent influence in the community has to be started from the beginning and done over again.

So the first very simple thing that I would say to you (and it is so simple that it seems to me it ought to be said at every convention of this kind) is that this business of public relations is a very constant business, that the fact that you told your story yesterday should not lead you into the delusion of supposing that you have ever told it. There is probably no fact in the United States that is easier to impress upon people's minds than that Ivory Soap floats, and yet the manufacturers of Ivory Soap think it is not inconsistent or wasteful to spend more than a million dollars a year in repeating that truth over and over again.

Cultivating good-will is a day-by-day and hour-by-hour business, gentlemen. Every day and every hour the "king" dies and there arises a new "king" to whom you and all your works mean absolutely nothing.

Now, the second very simple thing which I might say to you is that in your dealings with the public, in what you write and say, you must be genuine.

When I came to New York a great many years ago I had a lot of trouble with banks. It was very hard to find any bank that would be willing to accept the very paltry weekly deposit that I wanted to make. Finally I discovered one which was not as closely guarded as the others, and I succeeded for a period of three years in being insulted by the teller every Saturday. At the end of three years, when I came to draw out my money I had an audience with the vice-president who wanted personally to insult me. I said to myself, if I live and grow old in this town, some day I think I would like to take a crack at this situation.

And so the years passed (as they have a habit of doing), and I lived and grew old, one day a bank official came in to us and said he would like to have us do some advertising for him. I said to

this banker, "Now you go back to your office and shave off all the side-whiskers that there are in your bank and you take all the high hats and carry them out into the back yard of the bank and put them in a pile and light a match to the pile and burn them up, because I am going to advertise to people that you're human, and it may be a shock to have them come in and find you as you are."

So he went back to his bank and I wrote an advertisement which said:

> There is a young man in this town who is looking for a friendly bank; a bank where the officers will remember his name, and where some interest will be shown when he comes in, etc.

It was very successful. It was *too* successful. It was so successful that we could not control it, and all over the country there broke out a perfect epidemic, a kind of measles, of "friendly banks." Bankers who had not smiled since infancy and who never had had or needed an electric fan in their offices suddenly sat up and said, "Why, we are friendly."

Well, our bank dropped out. The competition was too keen. But it culminated, I think, in a letter which I saw and which was mailed by the president of a really very important bank in a large city. I won't attempt to quote it verbatim, but it was to this effect:

> Dear Customer: As I sit here all alone in my office on Christmas Eve thinking of you and how much we love you, I really wish that you and every other customer could come in here personally so I could give you a good, sound kiss.

Well, that is a trifle exaggerated, but the fact is this—if you don't feel these things you can't make other people feel them. Emerson said, as you will remember, "What you are thunders so loud I cannot hear what you say." Unless there is back of this desire for better public relations a real conviction, a real genuine feeling that you are in business as a matter of service, not merely as a matter of advertising service—unless there is that, then it is very dangerous, indeed, to attempt to talk to the public. For as sure as you live the public will find you out.

The third very simple thing, and the last thing that I suggest, is this: In dealing with the public the great thing is to deal with them simply, briefly, and in language that they can understand.

Two men delivered speeches about sixty years ago at Gettysburg. One man was the greatest orator of his day, and he spoke for two hours and a half, and probably nobody in the room can remember a single word that he said. The other man spoke for

considerably less than five minutes, and every school child has at some time learned Lincoln's Gettysburg Address, and remembers it more or less all his life. Many prayers have been uttered in the world—many long, fine-sounding prayers—but the only prayer that any large majority of people have ever learned is the Lord's Prayer, and it is less than two hundred words long. The same thing is true of the Twenty-third Psalm, and there is hardly a Latin word in it. They are short, simple, easily understood words.

You electric light people have one difficulty. I was in Europe this spring, and I rode a great deal in taxicabs. In England I sat in a taxicab and watched the little clock go around in terms of shillings. Then I flew over to Amsterdam and watched it go around in terms of guilders. Then I went down to Brussels and it went around in terms of francs. Then I went to France and it went around in terms of francs of a different value.

I would sit there trying to divide fifteen into one hundred and multiply it by seven, and wonder just where I was getting off, and I have no doubt now that really I was transported in Europe at a very reasonable cost, but because those meters talked to me in terms that were unfamiliar I never stepped out of a taxicab without having a haunting suspicion that probably I had been "gyped."

In a degree you suffer like those taxicab men. You come to Mrs. Barton and you say, "Buy this washing machine and it will do your washing for just a few cents an hour." She says, "Isn't that wonderful!" She buys it, and at the end of the month she sits with your bill in her hands and she says, "We have run this five hours, and that probably will be so and so." Then she opens the bill and finds she has not run it five hours; that she has run it 41 kw. and 11 amp. and 32 volts, and that the amount is not so-and-so but is $2.67.

Well, that is a matter that I suppose you will eventually straighten out.

Asking an advertising man to talk about advertising at a convention like this is a good deal like asking a doctor to talk about health. I have listened to many such addresses and they are all about the same. The eminent physician says, "Drink plenty of water. Stay outdoors as much as you can. Eat good food. Don't worry. Get eight hours' sleep. And if you have anything the matter with you, call a doctor."

So I say to you that there is a certain technique about this matter of dealing with the public, and if you have anything seriously the matter with you—whether it be a big advertising problem or merely a bad letterhead (and some of you have

wretched letterheads)—there probably is some advertising doctor in your town who has made a business of the thing, and it may be worth your while to call him in. But in the meantime, and in this very informal and necessarily general talk, I say to you, "Be genuine, be simple, be brief; talk to people in language that they understand; and finally, and most of all, be persistent." You can't expect to advertise in flush times and live on the memory of it when you are hard up. You can't expect to advertise when you are in trouble, or about to be in trouble, and expect to get anything in that direction. It is a day-by-day and hour-by-hour business. If the money that has been thrown away by people who advertised spasmodically were all gathered together it would found and endow the most wonderful home in the world for aged advertising men and their widows. Don't throw any more of that money away. If advertising is worth doing at all, it is worth doing all the time. For every day, gentlemen, the "king" dies, and there arises a new "king" who knows not Joseph.

XI

THE INSPIRATIONAL SPEECH

The "Why" of inspirational speaking. The nature of inspirational speaking. Some recent inspirational subjects. Planning the inspirational speech. The framework of the speech. Sublimation. Confidence. Appeal to wants. Definite suggestions. Development of details. Oral presentation. An excellent inspirational speech.

We may define the inspirational speech as one designed to revive enthusiasm and faith. It aims to stir people out of their lethargy, to get them to use their latent powers, and to set them on the road toward greater accomplishment. Inspirational speaking has not only had its part in every great economic, political and social movement, but it finds a definite and important place in the business world. The business leader gets the most complete cooperation of his associates when he is able to transplant into their minds his confidence and enthusiasm. He is able to rescue individuals from discouragement and apathy and to recreate their faith in themselves. Hardly a monthly or annual meeting of a great business organization passes without one or more inspirational speeches. Sales meetings are not complete without at least one address of this kind. Association meetings practically always include, as an important part of their program, an inspirational speech. Without them, the feeling of unity and high purpose necessary to the successful outcome of such meetings is difficult to attain.

THE NATURE OF INSPIRATIONAL SPEAKING

The inspirational speech is a persuasive talk of the highest order. It is the speaker's purpose to "sell" his hearers their occupation or function, to show them that, beyond the dull

and dreary routine of daily work, their business or profession is of the greatest significance, that it has social and spiritual values, and that it is a pursuit worthy of the best effort and enthusiasm of earnest men. Thus Dr. Alfred W. Wishart, in addressing the American Electric Railway Association, stressed the contribution which electric utilities make to the convenience and beauty of life. He linked this with character-building which comes from a study of how utilities may be made more efficiently to serve the needs of men, and with the highest conception of self-sacrificing scientific research. Nearly all inspirational speeches strike this note. They must, fundamentally, show the broader and more unselfish nature of the service rendered by the hearers, and stress its social and ethical import. In general, they should *sublimate* the business or occupation of the hearers by emphasizing its higher character.

A second function of the inspirational speech is to increase the hearers' confidence in themselves. Before an audience of men who have recently encountered difficulties, or who are confirmed failures, this function becomes very important. It may be fulfilled in many ways. For instance, the accomplishments of others no more gifted than they may be pointed out; the value of the lessons taught by bitter experience may be developed; the opportunities remaining may be stressed; their attention may be called to their past successes. The want-appeal may be used effectively in this connection, by placing before the audience the rewards which will come from greater effort and renewed enthusiasm.

A third function of the inspirational speech, and one which is too often neglected, is the suggestion of definite things to do to achieve the success which is desired. Many inspirational addresses have only a momentary effect because the faith and enthusiasm which they create is not connected with practical life. Therefore the speaker should, directly or indirectly, specify what action should be taken by his hearers. If this is well done, the speech will have more than a merely temporary effect.

Some recent inspirational subjects. Many readers of mature years will remember the tremendous effect of Russell H. Conwell's great inspirational lecture, *Acres of Diamonds,* which is said to have been presented over 8,000 times and to have stirred more young people to earnest endeavor than any other speech. It, with its simple theme that "your acres of diamonds are in your own back yard," developed by many concrete illustrations of people who seized opportunity near at hand, is perhaps the greatest example of this kind of addresses. However, there are many more recent speeches which exemplify the inspirational talk. Some recent subjects are:

1. The Ideals of Rotary.
2. Use Your Latent Powers.
3. "What Price Glory" in the Furniture Business.
4. The Service of Public Utilities.
5. Don't Die on Third.
6. The Ideal Man.
7. The Importance of Selling Automobiles.

PLANNING THE INSPIRATIONAL SPEECH

The framework of the speech. In general, the specific purpose, main ideas, speech details, introduction and conclusion should be planned like those of a sales talk. The purpose of the speaker is to persuade his hearers to action, and he should determine just what action is desired and what is possible in much the same way as when planning a sales talk. The main ideas should be chosen primarily for their want-appeal. The introduction should make use of vivid comparisons, specific cases, or of imagery, in order to command interested attention. The conclusion should present the most idealistic conception of the speaker's subject which is possible under the circumstances. Formal statement of purpose in the introduction, and formal summary of points in the conclusion, are ordinarily not desirable.

Sublimation. Vital to success in inspirational speaking is the ability of the speaker to sublimate his subject, that is,

to raise it from merely sordid considerations to the level of unselfish or idealistic service. In planning such a speech, then, the first step is to analyze the subject and to discover what its unselfish or idealistic characteristics are. Dr. Wishart, in the speech mentioned above, envisioned the electric utilities business as a contributor to convenience and beauty of life, and on this basis developed the theme of his talk. Harry C. Spillman, in addressing a convention of insurance men, took the subject, *The Ideal Man,* a man, he said, compounded of idealism, conscience, a fully developed and industrious brain, and a vision whose sweep encircles all the possibilities of a man's being. He then pointed how in what ways the insurance man may contribute by his service to the development of this ideal. Thus he identified his subject with an ideal conception of manhood. President Walter Dill Scott, of Northwestern University, in a recent speech on *Man Power,* delivered before the annual meeting of the Stutz organization, stressed the value of the automobile in increasing the "man power" of the nation. We may summarize this discussion of sublimation as follows:

1. Show the importance of the business or service under discussion.

2. Stress the higher significance of the subject, and emphasize the ethical and spiritual values involved.

3. Illustrate these ideas with concrete cases, comparisons, and imagery.

Confidence. This will frequently be created by the presentation of the importance and idealism of the service rendered. Sometimes, however, the speaker must seek to build confidence by more direct means. If the audience is composed of men discouraged by recent failures, the speaker may do at least four things:

1. *Point to past successes.* Focus the attention of the hearers on their achievements, and thus bring them to a pleasurable contemplation of the "high spots" in their lives. This is probably the quickest method of overcoming the effects of recent failures.

2. *Appeal to the hearers' pride in their firm or organization.*

Talk about the past, present, and future of the organization. Make them proud to be a member of the group.

3. *Use sublimation, as discussed above, to renew their faith in the value of the service rendered.* Stress the permanent and abiding values of the work they are doing.

4. *Appeal to them to use their latent powers.* Experts frequently assert that the average man uses only about one-tenth of his resources; that he is like a hundred acre farm with only ten acres under cultivation. To illustrate the significance of latent powers, a speaker recently used the following specific case:

> In a small Southern Indiana city about fifty years ago, one of the most notorious characters in the community was arrested and lodged in jail, charged with a most atrocious murder. The evidence against the man was conclusive, and public feeling became so inflamed that the man was lynched. A mob formed at the jail, demanded the prisoner, and on being refused, battered down the doors, entered the jail, and broke open his cell. The accused was backed against the back wall of the cell, in front of a heavily barred window. In the face of certain death at the hands of the mob, and moved by the greatest of all action-compelling motives, self-preservation, he reached back of him and with a mighty wrench tore the grating from the window and killed the first man to enter. The grating had been cemented in stone. For weeks afterward the community talked, not of the crime or the lynching, but about the latent power called forth by the criminal to meet the emergency.

In building confidence in an audience of confirmed failures, the speaker may substitute for the first suggestion above a discussion of the good qualities, traits of personality, education and preparation of his hearers, and then proceed as for other types of people, with especial emphasis upon the idea of using latent powers.

Appeal to wants. Throughout the inspirational speech, the appeal to wants must be used effectively. After confidence has been created, the speaker may set before the audience the advantages to be gained by greater efforts. If the audience is made up of reasonably successful people, the speaker may stir them to greater enthusiasm and endeavor by creating new wants, by holding before them a picture of

new desires which may be satisfied. The prospect of increased wealth, power, reputation, honor, or unselfish service will stir almost anyone to increased effort.

Definite suggestions. In most cases, it is necessary to include in the inspirational speech a number of practical suggestions by means of which the enthusiasm and confidence which have been created may be put to work for the satisfaction of newly-aroused wants. These suggestions need not be detailed nor lengthy, in fact they ordinarily should not be, but they should be definite enough to give the hearers a notion of what steps to take. They should be closely connected with the ideals and desires previously developed by the speaker.

Development of details. Vividness and originality in the development of details should be sought by the speaker who would inspire his audience to great enthusiasm. A review of the chapters on analyzing the hearer, and of the chapter on imagery and suggestion, will furnish many valuable suggestions. Imagery, because it appeals to the emotions as well as to the understanding of the hearer, is of especial value here. In the inspirational speech on *The Ideals of Rotary,* which appears at the end of this chapter, the reader will note the effective use of imagery in describing the performance of the master violinist Paganini. This passage, presented early in the address, gripped attention, gave dramatic quality to the speech, and served as a basis for the development of the speaker's plea for unselfish service as the keynote of Rotary ideals.

Frequent comparisons and specific cases should be used to develop the main ideas. *Acres of Diamonds,* the famous lecture by Conwell to which reference has been made, is made up of a series of specific cases illustrating the aptness of successful men and women in detecting and grasping opportunity. Dr. Wishart, in developing the concept of scientific service, used the example of a research man who risked his life in hunting for the parasite of the cane borer which was destroying the sugar crop in the Pacific islands. Concrete-

ness gained in this manner helps the speaker to avoid trite generalities, perhaps the greatest danger in inspirational speaking. A truly successful speech of this kind should be studded with actual cases.

Oral presentation. To convey a message of faith and enthusiasm, the fundamental qualities of delivery must be possessed in a high degree. The speaker must himself have faith and enthusiasm for that which he is discussing, and must be able to communicate these qualities to his hearers. A lackadaisical manner, or coldness and aloofness, will prevent success. Every ounce of effort of which the speaker is capable must be used to vitalize his message.

AN EXCELLENT INSPIRATIONAL SPEECH

To illustrate the general qualities explained in this chapter, we present the speech on "The Ideals of Rotary," delivered in 1925 by Everett W. Hill, retiring president of Rotary International. The person disposed to be a "sophisticated" critic might find in Mr. Hill's stirring address an over-ornateness and exuberance of language, but it is the enthusiasm and idealism which produce this type of diction which are most essential to good inspirational speaking. The imagery and the emotional tone of this speech commend themselves to the intelligent critic who realizes that in public address greater vividness and force must be present than in written composition.

The Ideals of Rotary[1]

My administration as your President is rapidly coming to a close, and I am here to render an account of my stewardship and to advise with you as to the state of the organization; to tender back to you this high office with which I have been honored and to thank you for the wonderful opportunity I have enjoyed in this service.

It is just a year ago that I stood upon a rostrum similar to

[1] By Everett W. Hill.

this and received from you a gift. In all humility, before the delegates of the Toronto Convention, I accepted the presidency of this organization we all love. That occasion is stamped indelibly upon my mind and heart and I was overcome with emotion at the time. It was not the honor of office; though there be none greater. It was not so much the friendship that touched me so deeply. It was not the pride in achievement that stirred my very soul. It was none of these, as wonderful as they may be. The emotion I experienced vibrating every responsive chord in my heart was the opportunity of *serving*. The grandest and most noble gift that can be given anywhere upon this world is making it possible for another to serve. And the responsibility of this opportunity to serve flashed through my mind with the sharpness and sureness of a stroke of lightning. It was gigantic; it was overwhelming. I wondered if I could measure up to the task. I wondered if there was *any* man on the face of the earth worthy of this wonderful gift. And then, after this flash of the immensity of the task just ahead, there came stealing over me, like some superhuman guiding hand, a feeling of the love and friendship of over 105,000 Rotarians; men holding a variety of mere political opinion; men professing nearly a score of diverging religious beliefs. These purely material differences that so affect our daily lives faded away in the light of understanding and compassion for my fellowman, and I felt strong. I made one resolve, that I would give my every effort. Today, I appear before you and simply state—I have done my best!

Some years ago there appeared in the music hall of a certain city, Paganini, the master violinist of his time—perhaps the master of all times. As he stepped into view from the wings of the stage his expectant audience burst into rapturous applause, which the artist acknowledged with a dignified inclination of his head as he walked to the center of the stage. With the grand gesture for which he was famous, he raised his bow high above his head and nestled his violin caressingly, firmly, beneath his chin. A sonorous chord was sounded by the accompanist at the piano, and the master with a quick movement of his arm brought the bow in contact with the "E" string. The audience was electrified by a sharp snap as a broken and useless string wiggled and curled about the neck of the violin. Breathless, intense, the audience watched Paganini tear the dangling string from its fastening, drop it at his feet and again raise his bow. Again the sonorous chord of the piano, again the bow came down and it pressed against the "A" string. Again came the snap, and another useless string dangled from the neck of the violin. As unmoved as

he had been at the first occurrence, Paganini caught the broken string in his fingers, tore it away with a quick, decisive but passionless movement and cast it away from him. Once more the mighty arm was raised and came down with exact precision on the "D" string. And once more came the sharp snap, once more a string curled its length about the neck of the violin. Paganini, with rising emotion, quickly jerked the third useless string from the violin and cast it far out into the audience, who sat dumbfounded, thinking the master had become insane! There was not a sound in the vast audience save the sounding of the piano chord, the vibrant snap of the three strings, one after another. There was a tenseness, a sense of something impending. Paganini for the first time seemed to note his audience. His deep eyes searched through it for a second. Then, glancing at his accompanist and raising the violin high above his head, he plucked the one remaining string with one of his long, agile fingers.

"One string—one str-r-r-ring," he said, drawing out the repetition of the word as though in triumph, "Just W-a-n-str-r-r-r-i-n-g —and Paganini!"

A quick movement—the piano chord, and as the master touched the one string remaining on his wonderful instrument immediately a miracle was born. On those waves of deathless music the soul of every hearer was carried back to the old homeland beyond the sea. They heard in imagination the lapping of starlit waters on Italian shores. They heard again the lilt of nightingales amid the vineyards of France. They caught again in memory's caverns the crash of thunderstorms in the immensities of the Black Forest. It was the miracle born of the one-stringed instrument and the genius that comes from superhuman power alone. Unabashed, unperturbed by the seeming breaking down of his perfect instrument, with the fire and zeal of his heaven-born art and the magic of his masterful arm, Paganini with one string opened the souls of every man, woman and child who heard him play. Each was lifted out of the world of sordid things on the wings of melody and transported for the time to that fairyland where each reveled in the ecstasy of his fondest dream.

Fellow Rotarians, I greet you as potential miracle workers of our century. In your hands you have the most precious gift of God—the wonder instrument of all ages—Life! Strung with the vibrant wires of *Hope, Ambition, Reward,* and *Service,* it is capable of producing world-stirring harmonies, soul-building melody; glorified by the bow of desire it can convert your journey through cosmos into a song of triumph. As it came to your hand through ages of use and misuse, sloth and lassitude had bitten deep

into the string of *Hope; Ambition* was frayed in places by insensate greed; and selfish purpose had weakened the power of *Reward.* There remained the single string of *Service,* unhurt by time, by custom, or by usage, pure, undefiled and, my fellow Rotarians, little used. It is that string of the divine instrument of life which we glorify in our Rotary philosophy. With its simple melody sounding high above the discords, other phases of life make in their play with the weakened strings, we can bring into the hearts of all men, of whatever clime, the joy that never yet was on land and sea. From that one string the divine oratories of every religious faith will be heard on earth again. Its vibrations will so affect the other strings that they will bring their harmonies into the chorus that swells the refrain which teaches *Service Above Self.*

One string, the *Service* string—*Rotary.*

We can and must win the blessed profits of life from the practice of that philosophy embraced in the eternal teachings of Rotary—"To encourage and foster the Ideal of *Service* as the basis of all worthy enterprise." Is there anything in the world more glorious than true service? Is there anyone in the world so exalted as the one who serves? Is there anything more sublime than the feeling that comes to one who serves? Think over the occasions you have seen men serve and of the thrill those men gave you. You see it in everyday life. It thrills you; it thrills me. And the glow of it in your own soul is but mute evidence that we are in tune with the string of unselfish service. It is up to each and every one of us to enhance that impulse, that a miracle will be born in our lives. Like Paganini and the one string, we can, with the one string of unselfish service work a miracle within ourselves and within the lives of men all over the earth, with Rotary to guide us, until the whole world has the desire for a common brotherhood of man. I say we *are* in tune with the string of unselfish service. Give it a chance, Rotarians, and you will depart from this world content with the knowledge that you left the world a little more beautiful than you found it.

We must tear selfishness from our lives!

Selfishness will not receive its mortal challenge until we conquer self. The test on which every great civilization has failed has been the test of unselfishness. Tracing down through the ages from the time of Babylon, Carthage, Rome and Greece, to the present age, we find this failure, our inability to conquer self. Too many of us profiteer by our failure to give full value for citizenship, and for life, itself. We take all; we give nothing. We know not the meaning of service.

Rotary gathers its inspiration from the life of each one of us. Rotary looks far above the life of greed and inordinate ambition and realizes that supreme good can come only from unselfish service. Like the martyrs of long ago, Rotary can truly say that:

"Whether on cross uplifted high or in the battle's van,
The fittest place where man can die is where he dies for man."

The great majority of Rotarians in this audience have ever before them the faith and sacrifice of their Divine Exemplar. Behind the manger birth, the crown of thorns and the malefactor's cross was the holy passion for service in behalf of the sons of men. Rotary breathed in the choral song of the Advent. And more than that, Rotary has compassion for *all* men, regardless of religious faith. It sank like the wings of the unseen dove above the shepherd cots of Bethlehem when it told of dawning peace on earth and of approaching good will among men. It soothed the tears that fell at the opening grave of Bethany. It hovered like an angel's benediction above the skull-shaped hill when He took leave of life and crowned the gospel of brotherly kindness with the garlands of His martyrdom.

Like the blast of an archangel's trumpet, that challenge comes today to every true Rotarian; it comes from the teachings of all creeds, summons each and all to consecrated service in behalf of every heart that breaks and every soul that mourns, regardless of race, creed or political belief.

The single string of life is tuned to the happiness that abides by every fireside and warns us against all evils that would minimize or destroy the joys of home. So long as home life remains in its pristine purity, so long as family ties remain unbroken, so long as loving men and women link their lives in perfect comradeship, so long as every man's house remains his inviolate castle, so long as the orchestra of the human heart is stirred by the divine melodies of *Home, Sweet Home,* our civilization is safe and the ages will bear golden promises of the future.

But when home ties are snapped by the strong winds of destiny, when marriage is converted into mere social convenience, when childhood is frozen by the cold winds of parental indifference, when the name of God is never mentioned in reverence by the firesides of a modern age, then civilization is headed straight for the maelstrom and over every capital and every nation there hangs a doom heavier than the burden of Babylon.

Rotary can do much to maintain the purity of home life and drive away the evils that threaten to undermine the home. Rotary *must* have this uplifting influence to justify its origin and perpetuity. We know of the universal origin of Rotary and we

believe in its perpetuity because its principles and objects are broad elemental truths, as elemental as the vastness of the seven seas, the lofty grandeur of the mountains, and the wonder of the existence of life on this very planet. Elemental truths belong to no period or age; they are the property of everyone; they form the foundation of Rotary.

And even so with the nation. No matter whence the Rotarian may come, whether from some imperial city or some unknown village, whether from an acknowledged world power or some insignificant principality, whether he be prince, potentate, or beggar, he must recognize the appeal of the homeland and remain loyal to its interests and traditions. Applying to its problems that philosophy he so well loves, he must seek to convert it into an instrument of international service and remove from its face the deadly mask of international fears.

In the world's scheme of things there is a place for everyone who loves the flag that floated above his cradle and yet floats above his children's home. Aye more! No one can be a true Rotarian who fails to love the mountains amid which he was bred or the wild prairie reaches that his infant feet have pressed. It is his to live the social and moral standards of his homeland, to preserve it from the ugly hold of evil forces, to make its long days brighter and its people a happier race. In this realm of consecrated patriotism, also, *He Profits Most Who Serves Best.*

And in serving best his homeland, he serves best the world, remembering that a world brotherhood is composed of peaceful homelands linked together in a larger and stronger bond of social and moral standards.

No mere mortal can with safety forcast the future or read the riddle of the years to come. But gathering wisdom, if not foreknowledge, from those voices that ever rise from the sepulcher of dead nations, we can predict with approximate safety that the mighty nation of the future is the nation that nearest approaches the Rotary ideal of service. The tooth of time may eventually devour the last of our naval ironclads and level the mightiest capital that lifts its spires to the morning stars. The last stones of Mother Athens may be buried in desert sands and the famed New Zealander of Macaulay's imagination may take his stand on a broken arch of the London bridge to sketch the ruins of St. Paul's. But the nation that accepts the challenge of world service and prefers humanity's advancement to the roar of conquering guns is assured of an earthly immortality.

How then, Fellow Rotarians, can a Rotarian of any nation fail to translate into terms of world service the national impulses of his native or adopted land?

Service to humanity is all-inclusive. Greater than service to home or country because it includes both of these, it comprehends within its divine beneficence every soul that bears a weight of sorrow and every heart that breaks under its burden of pain.

"The world is my country and to do good is my religion," is the dictum of one whose life was spent in the quest of political freedom. Wherever, in any land freedom found a rotary, it found in this man an instant champion. His thirst for liberty overleaped the feeble demarkations that mark the map of the world and with brain and hand he fought to abolish the chains of his age.

And likewise, in the spirit of a still wider service, Rotary claims the whole world as its own. It covers continents and islands with the simplicity of its elemental truths and seeks to bind all races, all creeds, with those ties of universal service that make the entire world akin. In the land of the midnight sun or amid the islands of the Southern Seas lives no man who cannot live a life of Rotary teachings.

Service is not to be performed up among the mountain peaks of the world's exalted places only. There is abundant work to do in the valleys also. The giving of renewed life to a crippled child, the education of some deserving boy, a library or hospital to be founded and sustained are all exemplifications of the Rotary creed of unselfish service. The opening of city parks for the relief of street-bred people, the lining of city avenues with trees and flowers, the inculcation of civic righteousness in the various communities are tasks that invoke the sympathy and assistance of all who are imbued with the spirit of Rotary. Public acknowledgment is not necessary in the doing of these tasks. Unselfish service is entirely divorced from praise and noisy acclamation. It is the spirit of service behind the project that Rotary seeks to promulgate. Praise is no reward for a task well performed. The only reward that a true Rotarian seeks is the knowledge within his own soul, in the intimacy of his own mind, that he has done a good deed. Let praise and pride in material achievement go to those who wish it.

Ofttimes the call to service comes from the pallid lips of the poor and lowly. Opportunity often lies in the hovels of the unfortunate whose lives have been darkened by misfortune. It is not always easy to go down into the world's unfavored places to relieve the distress of those less fortunate than ourselves, but in the dispensation of unselfish service, Rotary can know no distinction. It can never forget that the apostles of all creeds, that have professed service as a fundamental, came from or owe their

teachings to the lessons coming from the problems of those unfortunate.

"I said, 'Let me walk in the fields,'
He said, 'No; walk in the town.'
But I said, 'There are no flowers there.'
He said, 'No, no flowers, but a crown.'

"But I said, 'The skies are black,
And darkness is veiling the sun';
He wept as he led me back;—
'There are souls in the darkness undone.' "

It was not amid the panoplied ranks of wealth and station that true service was first born. It was not formed amid the classic halls of academic philosophy nor yet amid the marbled walls of splendid Caesars. It was among the poor and lowly that the philosophy we teach had its several origins. Mighty monarchs have ignored this teaching, and have blazed the comet of a season. They have drunk their chalices of honor and glory from the bleaching skulls on a thousand hillsides where the devastating heel of war has trod. But lowly hearts in the quiet places have lifted up the poor and lowly and thereby gained a richer, a far greater reward.

Inspired by the teaching of Rotary, a teaching as sacred as ever offered us by prayer, Rotarians must first tear selfishness from their own lives and then seek in simple faith to remove it from the world of men. It will not be easy to eradicate entirely a principle that has, since the beginning of time, breathed its virus into the hearts and minds of man. It will not be easy, if it be possible at all, to terminate entirely the life of a principle that brought down to eternal ruin the republics of the Greeks. The lone mother of dead empires sits today like Niobe weeping amid the ruins of her seven hills, because of the selfishness that made her the slaughter pen of the northern world.

No, I say again, it is not an easy task! But the challenge of Rotary can never be denied by any true Rotarian. If our objects are not lip service merely, if the simple truths of Rotary have indeed touched our hearts, if indeed we believe that service is the real test of living, we must most assuredly tear this discordant tone of selfishness from our lives. We must so tune ourselves to the instrument of service that all the world will take knowledge of us and see manifested in our daily conduct the message that our lips proclaim. Words and phrases are nothing unless accom-

panied by action. The objects of Rotary will never be realized if we only talk about them. We are in the midst of a civilization today born of stress and strife; hewn by the sword and trailed by human blood. Not words, but action on the part of every Rotarian is needed to break limitations of national tradition and race prejudice and amalgamate all nations into family of the whole.

We must tear irreverence from our lives.

In the strenuous rush of material life and in the foolish wrangle of the market and forum we are prone to lose that spirit of reverence that characterized the fathers of our civilization. Too many are the homes in which the name of the Deity is never mentioned save with a blasphemous connotation. Too often in public places do we hear the name of our Maker mentioned only in vain. Too frequently do we note the efforts of thoughtless men to destroy the last vestige of reverential feeling and poison the souls of men with the deadly virus of irreverence.

No longer are we generally disposed to hold in reverence the name of parenthood and the holy name of motherhood. Homes for old women have become a shameful necessity in many wealthy cities. No longer can a searching world find with ease an obedient child and we all but deserve the sneer of the cynic when we are entirely controlled by the whims of children. The very fundamentals of a reverential life are in danger of being lost. The most sacred ties of love and marriage are too often regarded as mere social conveniences. Even murder and perjury are usually found in the best books of criminologists, who, forgetting the canons against murder and falsehood, affect to teach that crime is the product of society and that criminals are nothing but the innocent victims of a public error. In the meantime the material scientist, forgetting the woman who gave him life, seeks to advertise his name for a season by employing as mere material for laboratory analysis the very flowers that bloom on a mother's grave.

Rotary must forever silence the discordant tone of irreverence. It must help lead back to the altars of the nations the spirit that made our parents sacred and gave to modern civilization its supremacy.

We must tear intolerance from our lives.

The spirit of intolerance has recently gripped the nations and successfully defied the exorcism of all true charity. Rising from the dust wherein it has reposed since the expiration of the Middle Ages, it has come forth once more in its ugly vestments to vex the souls of men. For half a decennium one-half of the world's

population was urged to hate, to maim, to kill. We find in the ghastly backwash of that tragic era the spirit of repression, of passion, of revenge.

No matter how free may be the charter of a nation it is no longer easy to gain a respectful hearing. No longer is the right of conscience freely conceded, no longer are the innate rights of men unchallenged. Into the market and the forum we have transplanted the bitterness of the camp and refuse too often to concede the right to a contrary opinion. If this evil cannot be entirely eradicated, it must be reduced to its very minimum. Herein will Rotary find abundant opportunity for the manifestation of its teachings. Splendid indeed will be the service performed in the interest of humanity if we can render aid in driving this ugly monster from the hearts and deliberations of men. The spirit of intolerance on the part of any Rotarian, any community, any nation is in direct opposition to the fundamental truths of Rotary. Intolerance has no place in a world fellowship of business and professional men united in the ideal of service. Let us fight it with an understanding and compassion so broad, so fine, that it will be forever banished from the world. Understanding is the foe of intolerance.

No one can deny the virtue of acquisition, but no one can defend the wrong of unrestricted greed. It is for Rotary to palsy the hand of Mammon as it reaches forth to despoil the defenseless, to starve the helpless, to gather where it has never sown. All nations must be taught the unspeakable evil of exploiting helpless and needy people, whether such exploitation takes the form of war or commercial supremacy. It matters not whether it is a cannon or a trick of diplomacy, the result of the evil is the same, the magnitude of the crime measured by the same standard. Commercial exploitation is often the more dangerous; it is more subtle. The heartless agencies that seek to gather unearned profits from the exigencies and calamities of mankind must be stayed in their course. Rotary can hold before the eyes of all nations the high example of unselfish service and teach an erring world that undeserved profits can never be the best that human life affords.

Fellow Rotarians! In closing, I would again draw a simile between Paganini's one-stringed violin and your daily life. In each and every one of us there exists to some degree the discordant tones of *Selfishness, Irreverence,* and *Intolerance* which are continually producing a dissonance of harsh sounds, which translated into daily conduct makes us little better than savage beasts. And underneath, the pure, sweet strains of the single tone of *Unselfishness and Service,* are forever awaiting an opportunity to work a

miracle. You and I can tear these three discordant elements from our lives and, like Paganini, work a miracle. One string—One String and *Rotary*.

You know the name Donatello in connection with art, the wonderful Italian of Florence. He had completed his masterpiece, as he thought, a wonderful piece of sculpture. The city of Florence, much interested, sent for that great world artist, the greatest of all times, Michelangelo, to come and inspect the work of Donatello and pass criticism.

That day in Florence, under the brilliant sun of that southern clime in all Italian gaieties and color, came Michelangelo. The great artist passed through column after column of smiling and laughing children, of smiling and tearful mothers, of smiling and hopeful men, leading up to the great cathedral where the work of art was standing. He entered; men, women and children seemed to hold their breath, in agony of suspense. There was a canvas drawn across the work of Donatello. Slowly, Michelangelo mounted the platform. One question was on the lips of all, "What would he say?" The future history of art in Florence and the future reputation in Rome was at stake. All Florence was smiling and while smiling, hoping and praying. What would Michelangelo say?

Slowly the canvas was drawn, and there was a picture in marble. Yes, a vivid picture of the Italian army, man after man, every gun set, every face drawn taut, every nerve a-tingle. Even the veins on the face and neck of the drummer boy stood out in sharp lines of cold, pure marble. Oh, what would the great critic say? There they were, ready to march out from their capital city; to fight for what you and I would fight; for liberty; for humanity; for God. What would Michelangelo say?

Suddenly, in the deathly but nervous stillness of the cathedral, he clicked his heels together, saluted the statue and gave the command, "March!"

Will you let me show you an army of Rotarians, recruited from the thirty nations of the Rotary World, 108,000 strong, shoulder to shoulder, eyes agleam, minds determined, hearts aflame, all marking time together, ready for the command?

See! The banner of Rotary is flung out to the breezes! The tramp of marching feet becomes louder, the command is given—yea, hurled out to *You*, members of this great army, *March! ! ! March On! ! !*

XII

DISCUSSIONS OF POLICY

Argumentative speaking in business. The nature of discussion. Preparation of a discussion. The proposition. Finding the important points. History and origin. Definition of terms. Narrowing the question. Contrasting opposing arguments. Determining the main issues. Helps in analysis. Logical reasoning. Valid evidence. Organizing the talk. Meeting opposing arguments. Concluding amicably and persuasively. Classroom practice in discussion. An effective discussion.

For every important problem of business policy, there are usually two or three proposed solutions. If it is a question of curtailing employment during a slack season, the plant manager may wish to lay off one-third of the staff, while the labor manager may urge that the entire staff be kept, but put on two-thirds time. Conflicting views must be reconciled and compromised, or one or the other prevail. In many cases of this sort, it is necessary to have an understanding of what constitutes effective argument in order to maintain a point of view and to get one's policy adopted. Discussions of policy play an important part in the internal affairs of every concern. Again, business men of prominence, and public relations counsel, are frequently invited to address meetings of the public on various matters of policy relating to their business and to the general welfare. For instance, the public relations division of a gas company may desire to present the company's position to the public on the matter of rates and service, or to discuss the question of public versus private ownership of utilities. Public questions of this kind always attract vigorous discussion pro and con, and if the individual or concern who might be affected by a decision to adopt, for instance, municipal ownership of lighting plants, is not able to present his arguments in a convincing manner, his interests would be affected adversely.

THE NATURE OF DISCUSSION

Discussion may be defined as formal or informal argument on the desirability of adopting proposed changes in policy, or upon the truth of alleged facts which are in dispute. Arguments on policy are more frequently found in the business world, while arguments on matters of fact form the basis of many legal cases. The method of preparation is essentially the same in both.

To present an effective argument sustaining one's advocacy or opposition to a proposed change in policy, one must become proficient in the following matters:

1. Ability to define and limit the proposition.
2. Ability to analyze the proposition to determine the important points upon which a decision will rest.
3. Ability to reason logically in support of one's position.
4. Ability to sustain one's position with valid evidence.
5. Ability to refute the arguments of one's adversary.
6. Ability to conclude the argument amicably and persuasively.

In this chapter, we shall outline briefly the important considerations relating to the above points. For supplementary reading, we recommend the first part of Professor V. A. Ketcham's *Argumentation and Debate*. Other standard texts on argumentation will furnish further assistance.

PREPARATION OF A DISCUSSION

The proposition. When a dispute over a matter of policy arises, the first thing that should be done is to define and limit the proposition to a concise and debatable statement. It should be so stated that those who wish to make a change in the existing policy are to uphold the proposition, while those who oppose a change are to argue against the proposition. The presumption in all arguments is in favor of the *status quo*, and unless those who wish to make a change can sustain their proposal by presenting a preponderance of

evidence and reasoning, the presumption is that the *status quo* should be undisturbed. Therefore, in the labor question alluded to at the opening of this chapter, if the policy of the company in the past has been to lay off one-third of the employees in slack times, the proposal should be worded, "We should retain our entire staff on a two-thirds time basis." If private ownership of the lighting plant prevails in a city, the proposition in dispute is, "Resolved, that there should be public ownership of the lighting plant of this city," *not* "Resolved, that private ownership should continue." The burden of proof, in other words, is upon those who would change the existing order.

In the second place, the proposition must be so phrased that it exactly defines the point in controversy, and does not go beyond it. The proposition should be limited as narrowly as possible, so that there may be no misunderstanding what the argument is about.

Third, the proposition should contain only *one* proposal, not two or three, and should be so worded that there is no ambiguity.

Every one who finds himself engaged in an argument should begin by thus formulating a proposition. He is then ready to proceed with the actual preparation of his side of the case.

Finding the important points. It is highly important that an argument deal with the important points at issue, for if points of significance are overlooked or slighted, the opposition will be in a position of advantage. Consequently unusual care should be taken to discover just what main arguments (main ideas) should be advanced.

The examination of a subject in controversy to determine the "main issues," or points of argument, is the most vital step in preparation. It should include the following steps, which should be followed in order:

1. Examination of the history and origin of the controversy.
2. Definition of the terms of the question.

3. Narrowing the question by excluding minor considerations and irrelevant material.
4. Contrasting the arguments of the two sides.
5. Determination of the main issues.

History and origin. The history of how a controversy originated, and of what has been done about it in the past, will suggest to the speaker some of the main considerations which he must bear in mind. In dealing with municipal ownership, for instance, a review of the experiments with this plan elsewhere is essential, and will suggest many arguments. In dealing with federal regulation of insurance companies, the history of state regulation will be of value. In dealing with labor problems, what the concern has done before, reasons for dissatisfaction with the plan in the past, and the like, will all assist the speaker. A familiarity with history and origin, then, is the first requisite of good analysis.

Definition of terms. The exact meaning of every word in the proposition, and of every technical word used in connection with the dispute, must be understood clearly by the parties to the controversy.

Narrowing the question. In order to concentrate effectively upon a few main points, it is desirable to dispense with argument upon points of relatively minor importance, such as, for instance, the argument that a revision of the clerical system used in the personnel office would be necessary if a new plan of employment were to be adopted. The effective speaker depends, not upon quibbling over minor points, but upon strong argument on points which are really important. In the second place, all matters not bearing directly on the argument should be rigorously excluded.

Contrasting opposing arguments. Study of the origin and history of the question having revealed many of the facts and ideas concerning it, and a careful definition of terms and narrowing of the proposition having been carried out, the speaker is in a position to take the next step, which is to compare and contrast the main arguments pro and con. It is desirable at this stage of preparation to make lists of these

arguments in parallel columns, so that the entire situation is before the speaker. These lists should be as exhaustive as possible, in order that the analysis may be complete.

Determining the main issues. The main issues may be defined as those important arguments concerning the proposition upon which there is a definite clash of opinion between the advocates and opponents of the proposed policy. The speaker having made his parallel-column lists of arguments pro and con, should then examine them to determine what seem to be the most important arguments upon which the two sides differ. Very often these can be boiled down to two or three important points. These important points of controversy are the issues; and it is upon them, stated affirmatively or negatively, that the speaker should build his address.

Helps in analysis. If the above procedure is followed faithfully, the speaker will be able to make a valid analysis of his problem and will be reasonably sure that he is talking on the main points. There are certain *stock arguments* which may at times be of assistance, although the trained speaker will seldom employ them except to check up on his analysis. These stock arguments fit almost any proposition of policy, but unfortunately they do not *exactly* fit. Some of these helps in analysis may be outlined as follows:

1. The proposition is necessary, just, and practicable.
2. The proposition is desirable from the standpoint of the employer, employee, and general public.
3. The proposition is desirable socially, economically, and politically.
4. The proposition is right practically and ethically.
5. The proposition is right theoretically and practically.
6. The proposition is desirable individually and collectively.
7. The proposition is right, looked at from the standpoint of present and past experience and future expectations.
8. The proposition is desirable from the standpoints of efficiency and economy.

This list of general, or stock arguments, might be continued indefinitely. The speaker is cautioned not to adopt such arguments unless he is sure that they, and no other

arguments, are the best for his particular proposition. At the best, they are usually useful only as starting points for the study of proposals, or as checks to make sure that in the process of analysis no important points have been overlooked.

Logical reasoning. Sound reasoning is at the basis of good argument. This is not the place for an explanation of logical theory, but we may put into concise form some of the considerations which the speaker should take into account in framing his ideas and conclusions:

1. If the argument is one based on some alleged general principle or truth, is that general principle a sound one, generally accepted by thinking people?
2. If the argument is one which seeks to establish a general conclusion by the citation of specific cases, are these specific cases true, are they typical, and have you cited enough of them to justify your general conclusion?
3. If you are arguing from authority, is the authority upon which you are depending a person of recognized standing on the point on which you are quoting him?
4. If you are arguing that a certain cause will produce a certain effect; are you sure that this cause is of sufficient strength to produce the alleged effect, and that nothing will interfere to keep this cause from operating? Conversely, in arguing that a certain effect must have been produced by a given cause, are you sure that some other cause was not responsible, or that it was possible for the alleged cause to have operated?
5. If your argument is based upon analogy, that is, the resemblance between things of a different nature, are you sure that your analogy is sound?

The above outline should prove useful to the speaker, both in insuring his own arguments against attack, and in examining the arguments of his adversary to determine means of overthrowing them.

Valid evidence. We may define evidence as any material of fact or theory which tends to prove the truth of an assertion. Evidence may thus take the form of accepted general truths which apply to the case at hand, of specific cases, of

statistics, and of expert testimony. In addition, the testimony of witnesses may be included. These details of a speech have been discussed in Part One, so that repetition here is unnecessary. The speaker must have sufficient evidence to sustain his arguments against the attacks of the opposition, and to convince an audience of good judgment that his position is correct. The evidence used should be accurate, inclusive, and clear. It must, of course, relate definitely to the main issue, or rather to the main idea which it purports to develop.

Organizing the talk. Having determined what the main ideas should be by the process of analysis described above, and having amassed sufficient valid evidence, the speaker should organize his talk. The specific purpose is of course to get acceptance, or rejection, for the proposition, as defined and delimited. The main ideas are affirmative or negative arguments based on the issues. The introduction and conclusion should ordinarily be marked by brevity and clearness, rather than attempts to arouse interest by the persuasive device.

Throughout the speech, however, as in the case of the sales or promotional talk, there may be an effective utilization of suggestion, imagery, want-appeal, and the other elements of interestingness. These should ordinarily be subordinated to logical argument and forceful evidence.

Meeting opposing arguments. The speaker must not only be able to present a good argument for his side of the proposition. He must be able to answer the questions of his opponents and hearers, and to overthrow opposing arguments. Therefore he must be skillful in the art of refutation.

Effectiveness in refutation depends upon a knowledge of what arguments are liable to be advanced by the opposition, and upon a command of the methods by which they may be overthrown.

The study and analysis of the question, to determine the main issues, will reveal to the speaker the arguments he will

probably have to meet. These should be listed, and a definite answer prepared for each one. This preparation will also enable the speaker to answer questions which may be asked.

Briefly, an argument may be answered in any one of the three following ways:

1. It may be shown to be unimportant or irrelevant. Analysis of the proposition, as explained above, will enable the speaker to determine what points should be answered in this way.
2. It may be shown to be based upon illogical reasoning, that is, (a) the general presumption upon which it rests may be untrue; (b) the specific cases cited may be exceptions to the rule, or insufficient in number to justify the conclusion; (c) the authority quoted may be a poor authority, or he may be misquoted; (d) the cause cited may be insufficient to produce the alleged effect; or the effect cited may be due to some other cause; (e) the fancied analogy may be inaccurate.
3. It may be shown to be based upon inaccurate or incomplete evidence. This is generally the most effective way in which to overthrow an argument, and should be used wherever possible.

Refutation should be brief and to the point. A statement of the argument to be refuted, followed by a terse presentation of the argument or evidence designed to overthrow it, is usually all that is necessary.

Concluding amicably and persuasively. Ordinarily, in business discussions, the speaker does not wish to make an enemy of his opponent, but wishes to conclude the argument in a friendly and persuasive way. This may be done by stressing, at the close, points of agreement or "common ground," and thus taking off the edge of the combative nature of the discussion; or by saying that although there is disagreement, the speaker is sure that both he and his opponent are working for the good of the concern. Finally, an application of the persuasive methods outlined in Part One of this work should be made throughout the entire discussion.

CLASSROOM PRACTICE IN DISCUSSION

The informal discussion for classroom purposes may be organized by selecting one or more members of the class to uphold each side of a stated proposition. If only one person is assigned to a side, the discussion might proceed as follows: (1) the person upholding the proposition shall present his arguments for it in a seven-minute speech; (2) the person opposing the proposition shall answer these arguments and present his own objections in a ten-minute speech; (3) the person upholding the proposition shall defend his arguments and attack those of his adversary in a three-minute speech. Questions may be asked by members of the class at the conclusion of the discussion, or after each person has spoken once. Variations of this plan may be adopted for discussions between two or more speakers on a side.

AN EFFECTIVE DISCUSSION

To exemplify the principles of logical discussion, we reprint the address of Julius Kruttschnitt, chairman of the executive committee of the Southern Pacific Railroad, delivered March 24, 1921, before the New Orleans Association of Commerce. Although the first paragraph of this speech makes difficult reading because of the length of the single sentence, it could be delivered in such a manner as to secure attention, and through its utilization of the principle of the familiar it brings home the speaker's subject to his audience.

The rest of the speech is a well-supported argument against government ownership and operation of railroads, and in favor of private control. Specific instance, statistics, and testimony are used effectively.

Other effective utterances by business leaders on various business and political problems may be found in Volume IV of *Modern Eloquence*, from which the following version of Mr. Kruttschnitt's speech is taken.

The Railroad Situation[1]

Suppose for the purpose of winning the War the Federal Government had taken over control of all the sugar factories in Louisiana at a fixed rental, with a promise that they should be maintained and returned in as good condition as if they had remained in control of the owners, and that their operating organization should be interfered with as little as possible, and thereupon had turned their management over to a person without knowledge of the business, but imbued with a firm belief in Federal ownership and unified management of the sugar industry; suppose furthermore that this person, tempted by a desire to make a large scale experiment to verify his theories, and by the opportunity to do so at somebody else's expense had ignored his tenure of the properties as lessee and had arrogated to himself the rights of the owner, and under this unwarranted assumption had shifted the equipment and machinery between factories, regardless of ownership, changing operating staffs, substituting supervisory officers of his own for those of the owners, on the theory that A would take as great interest and exercise as much care in maintaining B's property as B himself would, and B would maintain C's property in as good condition as C himself would; and suppose once again that the Federal Director had established rates of pay and working rules that ignored completely the interests of the owners and future of the industry, and that severed the proper and natural relationship between work done and pay received, so that as a body the employees were led to believe that they had but to make demands on him to have them granted, whether reasonable or not, as a consequence of which the cost of manufacture in the best managed plants was substantially 100% of the selling price; and after doing everything to make future successful operation difficult or even impossible, should return the properties to the owners, leaving them to answer as best they might the question—"What is the matter with the Louisiana sugar industry?"

It would be substantially the same as mine when I try to answer the nation-wide question—"What is the matter with the railroads?" which for twenty-six months endured troubles closely paralleling these hypothetical ones.

Naturally in considering this question we inquire into the condition of the roads when taken over by the Government, January 1, 1918.

We find that in 1917 they had transported more freight and

[1] By Julius Kruttschnitt. Reprinted from *Modern Eloquence*, the Modern Eloquence Corporation, New York.

passengers than ever before in their history; their lines in the closing months of that year were in excellent physical condition and the equipment better maintained than it had been before or has ever been since.

We find, too, that the roads moved a heavier freight traffic in the last nine months of private control than in the first nine months of government control, and the heaviest freight traffic *ever handled in any one month.*

The number of loaded freight cars per train and the daily mileage per locomotive and per freight car were greater than the corresponding figures under government operation in the succeeding year.

Next, you will properly ask—"What obligations did the Government assume in taking over the railroads?"

Following the entry of our country into the World War, the strenuous efforts of each government department and agency to secure preferential service interfered with the movement on the railroads, then under private control, to such an extent as to indicate the great gain that would come from a properly exercised paramount authority in allocating transportation facilities.

To meet this situation the President took over the railroads, and in his Proclamation on December 26, 1917, said:

> Investors in railway securities may rest assured that their rights and interests will be as scrupulously looked after as they would by the directors of the several railway systems.

And on January 4, 1918, he said to Congress:

> The common administration will be carried on with as little disturbance of the present operating organizations and personnel of the railways as possible.

Were these obligations, an obvious corollary as a matter of elemental justice to the act of taking over the roads, lived up to? They were not. While no one has ever questioned the President's intentions, they were promptly and completely ignored by his subordinates whom he placed in control of the railroads.

As soon as they felt securely seated they began to assert the rights of ownership to as complete an extent as if the railroads had been bought, paid for, and delivered. They began to remove all marks of ownership from equipment and to make purchases for account of owners of rolling stock of improvident designs and differing from every line's cars and locomotives previously in use, thereby imposing on the carriers in perpetuity the expense of handling unnecessary dead weight and providing special repair parts. Worse, however, than anything else, the operating organizations and personnel which the President had promised to disturb

as little as possible were completely disorganized by depriving the officers of the different roads of all control over wages, discipline, rules and working conditions. This was the germ of the inexcusable abuses and wastes to which we shall presently refer.

The maintenance of the relation of expense to earnings or net income, upon which depends the corporate life of the railroads, was a sacred obligation of the Government if investors were to feel that their rights and interests were being looked after as scrupulously as their own directors could do. To what extent this obligation was performed is shown by the percentage of expenses to earnings, which rose from 70.75% in 1917 to 85.16% in 1919 and to 93.74% in the eleven months ending November, 1920—the latest figures available at the time this was written. While the roads were returned to private operation on March 1, 1920, the railroad wage scales were subsequently increased by government authority, increasing the payrolls by more than $600,000,000 per annum, and the roads have not been able as yet to escape from the blight of government-established working conditions. Only six and one-fourth cents in 1920 out of every dollar were left to pay taxes, fixed charges, and dividends, and even this petty sum vanished on many roads early in 1921.

The Federal Administration respected neither the recommendation of the President nor the guarantee of Congress to maintain the railroads in as good repair and in as complete equipment as when taken over. It did not put into the track anything near the number of ties and rails necessary to maintain it; ties, both in quantity and quality, and rails were skimped. In two years tie renewals were 28,841,969 short, enough to lay 10,000 miles of track, and rail renewals were cut 326,236 tons, enough to lay 2,600 miles with 90 pound rail. On the Southern Pacific, Louisiana and Texas Lines, where annual tie replacements average 1,431,825 for the Test Period, yearly renewals were 398,323, or 28%, short on the return of the properties, and thousands of 6x6 inch ties, only half as large as the company standard and totally unfit for the purpose, were put into tracks in face of repeated protests from the owners of the property. So poor was maintenance on some of the Louisiana lines as to call for protest from the State Railroad Commission.

The equipment conditions on all lines were deplorable. Repairs were so inadequately made that when the railroads were returned to their owners, equipment was in the worst condition ever known. The common use of freight cars scattered them over the entire country, where during the entire period of Federal control and for many months since they have remained far from the interested

care and attention of the owners, the process of getting them back to their owners being a slow one. Before the war it was not unusual for roads to have 70% to 80% of their own cars on their lines; when they were turned back they had about 20%. Our own box cars were as low as 12½% and all cars 32% on our lines. I am handing you photographs of some derelict Southern Pacific box cars showing the results of the fostering care of the Government during its stewardship.

After 26 months of mismanagement the Government surrendered the roads with a heritage of four or five billions of debt saddled on the country, flippantly alleged to fairly represent a legitimate war cost, although much of it was inexcusable, avoidable waste; a scale of operating expenses $3,000,000,000 more than in 1917, and so burdensome as to make it cost almost 100 cents to earn each dollar of gross revenue.

I welcome this opportunity of putting the plight of the railroads before you, as much of their trouble is of a technical nature and little understood. If the managers cannot check waste caused by improvident agreements which they had no voice in negotiating, regulating bodies will have to raise transportation charges under the new railroad law, or you will have to be satisfied with poor service. There are hundreds of thousands of employees who now are rendering efficient services and earning all they get, but thousands of others, under the technical classifications and working conditions inherited from the Government, are being paid money they do not earn. In 1917 the railroads had 264,586 shopmen; in March, 1920, 378,238, an increase of 113,652, or 43%. The movement of trains was somewhat less in 1920 than in 1917, so that with equally efficient and industrious shopmen no more than the 25% increase due to the eight-hour day should have been required to keep up repairs, but the actual increase in numbers was 43%, so that the excess over 25%, 18%, or 47,600, represents roughly the cost of inefficiency.

It is difficult to be absolutely unbiased, smarting as we do under a keen sense of the injustice and breach of faith of the Government reflected in the conditions on our Louisiana and Texas Lines when returned to us. I therefore give the opinions of other competent judges:

Hon. Frank B. Kellogg, of Minnesota (Rep.), U. S. Senate, December 5, 1919, said:

> When the war broke out we had in this country, all in all, the best, the cheapest, and most efficient transportation system in the world. That it was not perfect goes without saying. But this is true, and will be conceded by substan-

tially all the experts in the world, that nearly all the inventions, improvements and advancements of transportation facilities have resulted from American inventive genius and energy and enterprise. An efficient and constantly growing transportation system is absolutely necessary to the very life and prosperity of this nation and must be had to maintain the growth of the country. In the main, the deplorable condition of the railroads is due to the inefficient and extravagant Government management and stupid bureaucratic control.

Hon. Atlee Pomerene, of Ohio (Dem.), U. S. Senate, December 6, 1919, said:

> I say, as a result of a year's study of this problem, that there has never been in the history of the railroads of this country as much extravagance and inefficiency as there has been under this unified control, no matter what the merits may have been, and there have been merits in the unified operation.

William J. Cunningham, James J. Hill Professor of Transportation, Harvard University, in the *New York Evening Post* of January 20, 1921, said:

> When the railroads were returned to their owners last March the condition of equipment as a whole was worse than when Federal control began.

In a paper read before New York Railroad Club, January 21, 1921, Samuel O. Dunn, Editor, *Railway Age,* said:

> The Government did not maintain the railroads in as good repair and as complete equipment as when taken over. For example, it did not put into their tracks anywhere near the number of new ties and rails necessary to maintain them in accordance with their obligation. It repaired and maintained their locomotives and cars so inadequately that when the railroads were returned to private operation their equipment was in the worst condition ever known.

The answer, therefore, to the question, "What is the matter with the railroads?" is, that they are suffering from the effects of 26 months of an experiment in government ownership and operation. I use the word "ownership" advisedly, as I have already pointed out that the Federal Railroad Administration from the beginning treated the railroads as if they were absolutely owned by the Government.

This is the disease. The remedy is simple. The first requisite of any business is the right to conduct its own affairs. Without

this right, efficient operation is impossible. In endeavoring to free themselves from the bonds of the labor agreements riveted on them during Federal control, when they were powerless to help themselves, the railroads are now trying to eliminate conditions that militate against their rendering such service as you have a right to expect, and in so doing are championing the cause of the general public. The present predicament of the railroads should cause the gravest apprehension to every thinking person. It is not a question of revenues adequate to cover operating expenses, taxes, fixed charges, and a reasonable return to shareholders, but one of corporate life and death, and life and death as well to every industry in the land. Poor service, no matter how low the rate, is expensive and increases the cost of everything. The price of good service is negligible when compared with the price of poor service, and if you want to reduce the costs in all lines of business and in all industries I urge you to support the railroads in their efforts to bring about better transportation conditions.

The roads propose that the Labor Board permit a prompt return to working conditions under which an honest day's work will be given for an honest day's pay. This *major effort* does not propose a reduction in wages, does not abrogate the Adamson Act or Eight-hour Law, and preserves to labor all the peace-time advantages that obtained on December 31, 1917, as the result of years of collective negotiations, conferences, and arbitration. There are now before the Labor Board propositions to reduce wages, also—and there will be many soon. It is imperative to remove the waste and inefficiency forced upon the railroads by the rules and working conditions made by men who were indifferent to the future of the properties and in the negotiation of which railroad owners had no voice. It is an essentially preliminary step in any effort toward the realization of conditions which may make it possible for the railroads to live under existing rates.

In existing conditions gross revenues of railroads are in the control of the Interstate Commerce Commission and State Commissions; operating expenses are fixed by numerous Federal and State laws, and the terms "Government," "Federal Railroad Administration," "regulatory commissions," you must understand are but other names for the people, *for you* who have permitted the things to be done that have brought the railroads to their present plight.

In trying to better existing conditions we feel we have the right to ask your help, as the people in 1916 made the most complete surrender of their interests in passing the Adamson Bill, the first of many concessions to unreasonable demands of organized labor

that have saddled burdens on the railroads, which, if not removed, will lead inevitably to ruin.

In passing the Transportation Act you recognized the interdependence of revenue, expenses, and net income, and provided means for handling labor troubles. In your three representatives on the Federal Labor Board rests the balance of power, as it should rest, and you can dictate the settlement of questions arising between railroads and employees. Two of your three representatives must agree with the three representatives of either the employers or employees to reach a decision. It is therefore eminently proper that as your interest in such issues is paramount, you should take part—and a very active part—in all proceedings before the Board. This could perhaps be done best through the Chamber of Commerce of the United States, which represents all commercial bodies in much the same way as all the railroads are represented by the Association of Railway Executives. We frankly admit the absolute necessity of your help in solving the railroad problem, and earnestly ask it.

At the same time it is eminently proper that you should expect the managers of the railroads to tell you what we are doing to effect economies and provide efficient operation and adequate transportation facilities.

We have spent vast sums in reducing grades and curves and on second tracks, sidings, and terminals, in order to increase the carrying capacity of our lines and to eliminate delays.

Conservation of fuel through the use of superheated steam, feedwater heaters, and other improvements, and the education of the employees charged with its use—whose loyal cooperation we are pleased to acknowledge—is daily receiving more and more attention.

Shop facilities and new and more powerful tools are being provided, so that the delay to locomotives and other equipment in shops has been materially reduced.

Freight car design has been studied so as to produce a 50-ton box car 3.3. tons, or 15% lighter and materially stronger than the United States Railway Administration car; the favorable effect of which on income is $330 per car per annum.

With the help of our employees the safety of life and limb has been greatly increased. The relation of fatalities in train accidents to locomotive miles run on all railroads of the United States for the first six months of 1920 was 20% less than in 1917. There was no fatal accident to either passenger or employee on the entire Southern Pacific System, including its electric lines, in December, 1920.

A revival of business will increase railroad earnings and will better conditions, but what will help more than anything else is your continued assistance and cooperation, which you have given so cheerfully since March 1, 1920, to railroad managers, in using tracks, terminals, locomotives, and freight and passenger cars more extensively than they had ever been used before, thereby avoiding the spending of fabulous sums that would be required to provide additional cars, sidings, second track, terminals, etc. The money value of what has been accomplished with your assistance since the first of March represented by interest that would have accrued on the cost of additional equipment, yards and side tracks to hold it, and maintenance and depreciation of cars and tracks, is $440,000,000, or $1,220,000 a day. Private control, supported by sympathetic public opinion and cooperation, moved the heaviest traffic in the history of American railroads in August, 1920. It exceeded the average monthly movement of ton miles under Federal control by 12½%. The experience of carriers in past years with a public at times hostile and non-cooperative through lack of common understanding, and the experience of the public with 26 months of arbitrary and wasteful government control, has had a chastening effect on both, and from our respective experiences has sprung a spirit of tolerance and harmonious relations that now exists. Your aims and interests and ours were never so nearly recognized to be the same as they now are, and it behooves us all to foster these relations so that they may be lasting. By every means in our power we shall try to perpetuate them.

XIII

GOOD-WILL SPEECHES

Opportunities offered. Planning good-will speeches. Give information. Things to avoid. Speak for the group. Speech structure. Oral presentation. President Fiske's speech.

Business and professional men frequently are requested to address luncheon clubs, conventions, and audiences of the general public on subjects relating to their business or profession. While at times the task of meeting these requests may seem onerous, such invitations offer an opportunity of building personal and professional good will, and should not be neglected. Organized public relations departments are alert to the possibilities of good-will speeches, and are able to establish desirable contacts with the people at large by means of them. Individual business and professional men should follow their practice in this matter.

The good-will speech may be defined as one the immediate object of which is to render service to the audience by conveying interesting or useful information, and which asks no immediate nor specific action on the part of the hearers. The speaker's object is primarily to make a good personal impression and to render the hearers favorably disposed to reward the business, profession, or organization which he represents. Direct sales or promotional talks, or highly controversial discussions of policy, are usually out of the question. However, the speaker may tactfully express his position on controversial questions, provided that he does so in a way calculated not to arouse opposition.

To illustrate the nature of the good-will speech, we present a few recent titles:

1. Description of the Port of New York. (By the chairman of the Port of New York Authority. Radio speech.)

2. The Proper Care of Tires. (By a tire dealer. Luncheon club speech.)
3. Legal problems involved in the crime situation. (By a prosecuting attorney.)
4. Provisions of the city zoning ordinance. (By a realtor.)
5. Effective speaking in business. (By the representative of a lecturer on speaking.)
6. Aims of high school athletics. (By the coach of athletics.)
7. The health situation in our city. (By a physician.)
8. How to judge a house. (By a contractor.)
9. Aims of the Federal Radio Commission. (By the chairman.)
10. What the Boy Scouts stand for. (By a scoutmaster.)
11. The welfare work of the *Metropolitan*. (By its president.)

PLANNING GOOD-WILL SPEECHES

Give information. An examination of the above titles will suggest what should be done in the planning of a good-will speech. Usually such talks should be informative in nature, aiming to give the audience the benefit of the special knowledge possessed by the speaker. The information which is given should be selected by the speaker with a view to its immediate usefulness to his hearers. Technical information, or theories of an abstract nature, should be passed over in favor of that which is of practical application. The more fully the speaker observes this suggestion, the more easily he will gain the good will of his listeners.

Things to avoid. In general, as has been stated above, the speaker should avoid matters of controversy. While he may occasionally express himself on such matters, he should do so in a way that suggests that he is merely echoing the known sentiments of his hearers. He should not argue with, nor denounce those to whom he is talking.

In the second place, he should avoid any appearance of making a direct sales appeal. His object should be to present facts which will serve the hearers, and not primarily to get

rewards for himself. Lack of sincerity will speedily be detected, and the beneficial effect of the speech lost.

Third, praise of one's self, or disparagement of associates or competitors, should be avoided. The general tone of the speech should be optimistic and cooperative, and not competitive.

Speak for the group. That he is representing a group of professional men, or a business or industry as a whole, rather than a single individual or firm, should be the impression conveyed by the good-will speaker. As in the case of the inspirational speech, he should analyze his subject to determine its higher ethical and social values, and should present these, rather than the more selfish or technical points of view. He should speak as an enthusiastic and sincere believer in the worth of the work in which he is engaged to the public as a whole. In this respect, the good-will speech greatly resembles the inspirational address.

Speech structure. The structure of a good-will speech will follow that of a speech of explanation and instruction, or that of an inspirational speech. While avoiding technical details, the speaker should try to present facts and figures which are concrete, striking, and related to the hearer's interests. Frequent specific cases, comparisons, and the use of narrative and descriptive passages to produce imagery, will prove acceptable. Abstract and general statements, unsupported by details, should be avoided.

Oral presentation. That the speaker must sincerely desire to serve his audience by presenting information, and that he must believe in the value of the business or profession which he is discussing, is a statement that cannot be overemphasized. Particularly in the good-will speech, where suspicion of a selfish motive might easily be aroused, the speaker must, by his manner, prove his desire to benefit his hearers. The fundamental qualities of delivery are nowhere more important. Sincerity, backed up by a communicative, expressive, and alert manner, will make a good-will speech achieve its purpose.

PRESIDENT FISKE'S SPEECH

Few better good-will speeches can be found than that by Haley W. Fiske, president of the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company, which we present here. Mr. Fiske has given this speech, or variations of it, at many public banquets at which the work of the great insurance companies in contributing to human welfare has been discussed. In its truly public-spirited attitude, in its constructive point of view, and in the use of details and phraseology, it exemplifies the effective good-will address.

WELFARE WORK OF THE METROPOLITAN LIFE INSURANCE COMPANY[1]

Ladies and Gentlemen, Guests: In the gathering before you are some 707 managers of the Metropolitan throughout the United States and Canada, from Sydney to San Francisco, from Edmonton to New Orleans, and we know no line which separates the United States from Canada. [Applause.]

There are besides several hundred delegates from the lower ranks of the Field staff who have earned their presence here by superlative records. And there are, I am glad to say, a good many of our Home Office people.

THE COMPANY'S 1926 RECORD

Ladies and Gentlemen, Guests: You are looking upon a body of men who have produced the greatest record of life insurance ever known in the history of the world. [Applause.] They placed life insurance last year to over three billions of dollars. [Applause.] That is one-sixth of all the life insurance placed by 300 companies. [Applause.] The business has rolled up our assets to over two billions of dollars. [Applause.]

That has made us the largest financial institution in the world. We are five hundred millions ahead of the Bank of England, and I suppose the Bank of England represents to you great financial strength though its amount of assets are exceeded by, I think,

[1] By Haley W. Fiske, *President*. Address delivered January 29, 1927, at the annual banquet of the Metropolitan Company, New York. From *The Intelligencer*, April, 1927.

three or four banks in England. Nevertheless we are ahead of them all.

I am not going into the figures very much tonight except to lay a sort of foundation. The record of the Company is contained in these blue statements of which our guests have a copy.

The business of the Company is in three Departments, Industrial, Ordinary, and Group. Industrial insurance may be defined as that system of insurance—life insurance—where the premiums are payable weekly, are collected at the homes of the insured. All other life insurance practiced by us is called Ordinary insurance. A part of the Ordinary insurance is what is known as Group insurance. Group insurance is the insurance by one policy of great numbers of employees, 95% of which policies are what is known as contributory; namely, that the employer pays a part of the premium and the employees pay the rest of the premium. The employees have certificates issued to them showing the amount of the insurance.

I shall discuss most briefly these three kinds. Of the insurance placed last year about a billion and a quarter was Industrial insurance. That was a larger number of policies for a larger premium than was written by any other company. [Applause.]

The Ordinary insurance was about a billion and three quarters, making up the three billions. That was, as I said, one-sixth of all the business written by all the companies.

It left us in force at the end of the year with an amount of life insurance amounting to thirteen and one-half billions. Well, that is millions ahead of any other company and represents 13½% of all the life insurance existing in the United States. [Applause.]

WE HAVE ONE-FIFTH OF THE POPULATION

The number of policyholders of the Metropolitan is over thirty-eight millions, and those policies insure over twenty-four millions of individual lives. You will recognize at once, therefore, that every fifth man, woman and child in the United States and Canada is a member of the Metropolitan. When I say a member of the Metropolitan it means the Metropolitan is a mutual Company, that these two billions of assets are owned by the twenty-four millions of citizens and their families. That means that every one of this vast number of people is a capitalist, and for years I have gone about the country trying to teach our agents to instruct their policyholders that they are the Company, that they own the Company, that they own the two billions of dollars, and thereby each

one of them is a capitalist having a share in this extraordinary amount of money.

I think perhaps the significance of that may be a little later explained, but it is the first lesson I want you men to continue to teach in circulating among these policyholders.

Therefore, ladies and gentlemen, three hundred millions of visits are paid every year by our agents to the homes of the working people. As I have often said, the Industrial agent is the only person I know anything about in the world who has a contract right every Monday morning to knock at the door and walk in. He becomes in these repeated visits weekly a friend of the family, an adviser, a confidant, looked upon as an elder brother. I am glad to say that our agents have, I think, on their own conscience the welfare of the working people of this country, and the significance of that will appear a little later.

Of the insurance in force you may be interested to know that Industrial is about five and one-half billions, the Ordinary is about seven and three-quarters billions, and the rest of it is Group insurance.

That is an answer to a good many critics of the wealth and strength of the Metropolitan who look upon it as an Industrial Company. You will notice that more than half is Ordinary insurance, which is the insurance payable quarterly, semi-annually, or annually. [Applause.]

I am about through with discussing life insurance as practiced by us. The story is told in the figures which you have. Far and beyond in importance to the life insurance is the use which the Metropolitan makes of its enormous income, nearly six hundred millions a year, and of the capital assets of two billions of dollars.

THE NURSING SERVICE

Many years ago there was brought home to us the responsibility which comes from the insurance of these vast numbers of working people and these weekly visits of agents. We recognize the fact that by and large wage-earning people know little of the rules of health, and sickness coming to a home where the income is taken up very nearly by the outgo is a disaster, and the mortality among these wage-earners has always been very high. It occurred to us that the power which comes from wealth brings a responsibility and that this responsibility can best be borne in Industrial insurance by these visits of agents and that we ought to do something to ameliorate the living conditions of these wage-earners and their families.

The mortality being high, the morbidity being high, it occurred to the administration we might help in that and we established what is known as the Nursing service, whereby every sick Industrial policyholder has the right to be nursed by a trained public nurse wherever we have been able to install the Nursing service.

Notice of the illness may be sent to the district office or it may be sent to the headquarters of the nurses or it may be conveyed by the agent when he calls. Thereupon the trained nurse is sent immediately. Her duty is to visit the sick person, to see if a physician is needed, and if so to insist that the family call upon the family physician. Thereupon she puts herself under his direction and calls as often and stays as long as the physician directs. It is of course not bedside nursing. You can see at once no company could furnish bedside nursing to the sick among twenty-four millions of people. The nurse's duty is to look about the house and give advice as to its condition with respect to hygiene and give advice as to the care and clothing of the children and diet.

HEALTH INSTRUCTING LITERATURE

Last year there were over three millions of visits paid by our trained nurses to sick Industrial policyholders and this brings up the total number of visits to twenty-seven millions. Could we supplement that? It occurred to us that we might supplement it by health instruction, and during these last fourteen or fifteen years we have issued pamphlets on every known disease, on general care of the health, particularly of the child; the first attack being made on tuberculosis, and that followed up by treatment, as I have said, of every known disease. Last year our agents distributed forty-four millions of health pamphlets and leaflets and that has brought up the total during these fifteen years to four hundred and twenty millions.

Our presses are always busy on tuberculosis. We have issued twelve millions of pamphlets called War on Consumption. On the care of the child, which is a beautiful book, we have issued fourteen millions. On babyhood we have issued ten and a half millions.

The significance of this will appear when I tell you that 25% of all of the visits paid by our trained nurses are cases of maternity, and these nurses visit the mother during pregnancy, before the birth, and attend the child during those first dangerous two weeks and then are available, of course, if there is sickness afterward.

THE RESULT IN IMPROVED MORTALITY

It has been very intensive work and one might ask what has been the result? Our Statistical Division has shown that the average life of the Metropolitan policyholder has been extended during the years 1911 to 1925 by 8.8 years. [Applause.] We recognize, of course, that there has been during these years a general improvement in mortality, but the figures in the Registration Area which cover the most of the population show the extension of human life during that period has been 5.6 years.

But that isn't the whole story. It is evident from the number of people that we have nursed and the number of people whom we have instructed in health that the effects have gone beyond our policyholders, who after all are part of the population. If it were possible to segregate Metropolitan policyholders from the rest of the population, the disparity between 8.8 and 5.6 years would be much greater. That very improvement generally in population mortality and morbidity has been influenced very largely by these millions of nurses' visits and these millions and millions of health pamphlets.

I don't know of how better to indicate what this work has done because the result of this Welfare work has been questioned by companies that don't practice it. This fact stands out, that in 1911 the mortality among Industrial policyholders was 24% above the mortality of the general population, and in 1925, actually our wage-earners insured in the Metropolitan showed a mortality of 1⅓% less than the mortality of the general population. [Applause.] Put it another way. If the mortality experience of 1911 had been repeated in the experience of 1926 we should have paid claims on 63,300 more people than we had to pay. In other words, how can it be said otherwise than that we saved that one year sixty-three thousand lives? And if the mortality of the year 1911 had been carried down through all the intervening years, we should have lost in 1926, 417,000 lives more than we did suffer by death.

Is it nothing, therefore, that this one Company should have saved in one year nearly a half a million lives? Can anybody say that that is a failure? Can anybody say it isn't a work worthy to be done? Is it expense? Why, this represents a saving of fifty-three millions of dollars in these years in death claims. Fifty-three millions! And the total cost of this Welfare and literature work has been twenty-six millions. So that twenty-seven millions are or have been in our treasury that would otherwise not have been.

WHERE OUR SAVINGS GO

Recollect that it is a mutual Company and all this vast saving of money doesn't go into the pockets of any managers or any corporation; it goes back into the pockets of the policyholders themselves. [Applause.] We are declaring this year twenty-two millions of dollars of dividends to Industrial policyholders, besides some forty millions to the Ordinary Department! It pays!

I have given these figures or figures like them at dinners throughout the country, and it is very seldom that some witty person doesn't in a speech following mine say: "Oh, yes, of course you have spent this money so that people will live longer to pay you premiums." I have something to say to a man who makes a remark like that. Is it nothing that lives have been saved? And whose profit is it that they live longer and pay more premiums? Whatever there is in it of savings goes right back to the living people and is added to the policy claims that we pay. It is a silly remark usually made by people who don't know how to make jokes. [Laughter.]

Altogether we have spent during these years on all Welfare work (I have given you the figure for nursing and literature), including the pensioning of our own employees, for various other kinds of welfare work, allowances to sick agents and clerks, free lunches at the Home and Head Offices, work at the Sanatorium, sixty-four millions of dollars, and we believe that has been well spent. That has been spent with a heart full of gratitude for our prosperity and full of love for all of our children who are insured.

DEMONSTRATIONS

In addition to all this, we have made certain demonstrations to show what public authorities ought to do. I shall mention two or three of them. I think the first in importance, at least to us, has been the establishment of the Sanatorium on Mount McGregor back of Saratoga where Grant died. There we have sent all of the tuberculosis patients whom we could find among our staff, and then we established a Rest House where we take convalescents from other diseases. The result has been what I call the demonstration—84% of all the discharges from the Sanatorium during those years have been discharged, as I say, cured; as the doctors would say, able to go back to work. Let it be that.

And now, having made a survey from the beginning carrying through all these dozen years since the Sanatorium was opened (I

am speaking of tuberculous people only), we show that 75% are still at work after all these years. [Applause.]

Then we have given the public the benefit of what it could do by a demonstration at Framingham where we sent a commission. They were busy these six years and they reduced the tuberculous death rate from 220 per 100,000 down to thirty-eight. That tells municipalities what they could do. Of course, we instructed the public in health and of course every factory had to have a nurse, the milk was looked after and the children were looked after.

Then we wanted to see what could be done with infant mortality, and we took a mining town in Quebec and we sent one of our nurses down there with two or three assistants. She worked a year and a half and she reduced the mortality from 300 per 1,000 during the first year of life (every third child died before it was a year old) down to ninety-eight. [Applause.] We couldn't keep it up indefinitely. But we have watched the experiment since, and the last returns are that the deaths per thousand have been reduced to seventy-nine, which is comparable to New York City and other cities.

GROUP INSURANCE

The third division of the Company of which I spoke is Group Insurance. Group insurance is the insurance by employers of labor of all their employees under one contract. We have a million lives thus insured and the amount of insurance in force is a billion and a half. What does that mean? It means two or three very important things. It means that we reach at once great masses of working people. We are not dependent then upon the individual canvass of agents. We get them all in a lump and those people have the right to trained nursing and receive literature. I don't think that is all. Ninety-five per cent, I think I told you, are what is known as contributory cases. That means that the employer pays a part of the premium and the employee the rest. It covers not only life insurance, for there are policies for accident insurance, for casualty insurance (I think it is called Death and Dismemberment because the Group Division never uses a short term when it can get a big one), thrift, the method of saving, sickness and, of course, accident.

CAPITAL AND LABOR

I ask you what it means when great masses of laboring people get into partnership with their employers. It is many years ago

that, traveling about the country addressing you and your men, I called attention to what I believed to be a symptom which sooner or later would come to the surface. I thought that beneath the calm exterior there was a turbulent spirit among working men that they were treated as machines to be used and scrapped, and that there was resentment, and I asked you then (it is many, many years ago) to raise that clarion call of service, and later the prediction came true.

I have made some study of the relations of Capital and Labor and it is a sordid story. I don't like strikes, I don't like riots, I don't like incendiarism, but when the passions of ill-educated men are aroused, what must happen? If they are resentful how can they show it otherwise?

I say that Group insurance is having and will continue to a larger extent to have an ameliorating effect upon these relations of employer and employee. What else can happen when employer and employee form partnership in insurance against death, against accident, against dismemberment, and insurance against sickness? What other result can happen than that the employee will say, "The Old Man cares for me." The Old Man! It used to be so in the old days that the employer knew his employee, could call him by his first name, but now the employer is a corporation. It has large offices in New York and other cities. It is far removed, it is a corporation which always arouses resentment among the poor, but nevertheless they say, "The Old Man cares for us." The old man may be the President in a handsome office hundreds of miles away, represented by foremen and subordinate officers at the factory, but the care is there, the love is there, maybe the idea of self-protection is there; but in some way or other, it gets into the heads of these people that there is sentiment (and how much the world is governed by sentiment) of care and love and protection. No longer are they cold and absentee officers hundreds of miles away who exploit labor and make profits out of it. No longer, if we can extend this Group insurance, will there be that feeling of enmity, of prejudice, of resentment on the part of employees; for every time one poor fellow meets with an accident and is disabled, every time there is a death in the factory, relief comes at once and they know that that relief comes in part (and sometimes in large part) through the contributions of the employer.

I would like to quote as a summing up these words of Secretary of Commerce, Mr. Hoover, standing here a very few years ago, when he said that he regarded the Metropolitan as the greatest single institution dedicated to public welfare in America. [Applause.]

THE SERVICE BUREAU

A most important part of this Division—the Group Division in the Home Office—is what is called the Policyholders' Service Bureau. I have told you what we do for the working men directly, but indirectly we are benefiting them by this Service Bureau. What is it? It is a bureau devoted to teaching employers what is to their best interests in running a factory or other plant. We make surveys, we give advice as to hygiene, sanitation, the amount of good air, as to labor turnover, as to production that comes from faithfulness on the part of employees, that increases the income of the corporation and advances the interests of the corporation, in safety engineering, in prevention of accidents, in providing lunch-rooms, in providing first-aid rooms in the factories. It is all directed in two ways, one to the welfare of the worker and the other to the business efficiency and the profit of the owner.

Isn't that a partnership again? Isn't it making it the interest of the employee to cooperate with his employer? Thirty-three thousand letters were written last year from this Group Division, and nearly two thousand direct inquiries for help were made. Problems are presented and they are answered by the scientific people and the learned people connected with this bureau. It is not a bureau of clerks. They are nearly all university graduates, they are engineers, they are sociologists, they are students of welfare, they are students in the way of factory management, and if the problem be beyond what anyone can answer, what do we do? We send out letters to everybody engaged in the same business or work and say: "What do you do with the problem presented to you that resembles this?" And from all parts of the country come in replies and they are correlated, and the result is that we are able to send out again to all the people engaged in that business what is the best method of solving that problem, a most important work which is bearing great fruit.

We are much the largest insurer in groups that there is in the country. It is growing faster than the business of any other company, so much faster that it is really rather ridiculous to mention the disparity between our Company and the next lowest. [Applause.]

APPEAL TO THE STAFF

I look for great results. My dear boys, I often wonder if you carry away from this Convention a picture of your Company. Here you have been busy from Monday morning to Saturday after-

noon. There have been meetings every day, there have been luncheons and dinners, not gay affairs but serious ones for discussions. You have been at a great meeting all day Thursday and all day Friday; you have been separated into Territories today in various localities about the town listening to your speakers and discussing problems. The Group people have had their dinner, their sessions, their conferences. The Group dinner, I think, was one of the most remarkable things ever held by an insurance company. The Group salesmen were there and some of the Group clerks were there, but the guests were capitalists—some of them Group policyholders, others not, but interested.

Did anybody ever hear before of a life insurance company that could gather in customers to a dinner and lecture them as to their duty? Try it out, you managers, when you go back and call in the leading people and see how far you get. This is the second occasion on which they have come, and the three great addresses delivered were by Group policyholders—one on Pensions, one on Group Life Insurance, and one on a subject that I wish you all could have heard. It is going to be published and I want you to read it. It was made by the head of the Continental Baking Company on this very question of the future relationship between Capital and Labor, and he warned the employers that the time was coming when they would face the most serious troubles unless they looked after the welfare of their employees. I am told that although he is the head of that great corporation he seems to care very little about the business, but his heart is all fixed on the relationship of employees.

Ah! my dear boys, my heart is in the welfare of this Group work of getting employers and their employees together in harmony. [Applause.]

WE CARRY OUR POLICYHOLDERS THROUGH LIFE

I want you to consider your Company—just what it is to the working people. Its nurse visits the mother before the birth. Its nurse helps to bring the child into the world. Its nurse carries it through the first ten days of serious danger. The Company begins then to instruct the growing child through adolescence. It follows him into school. It nurses him when he is sick. It instructs him by literature. It follows him into the places of employment. It teaches the employer to care for him. It brings about a partnership in Industry between Capital and Labor. Again it nurses when he is sick. Again it gives him literature. It instructs the employer in sanitation. It seeks to provide a healthy place to

work in. It gives instruction in diet. It goes down into the family and teaches the mother how to cook and what to cook for the benefit of the family. At no time does this Company lose sight of him. Through the employer it is teaching him to save money. It makes it easy through the thrift policy to insure savings. It brings to the attention of the employer the enormous benefit that comes from pensions. It gives him the best plan, and so far as I know the only plan, the only scientific and safe plan of pensions. It urges upon the employer to look after his men, to benefit them from the day the employee enters the service until the end. And at the end the Company pays the claim and protects the widow and orphan. In every part of life, from birth to death, as the years go on in every relationship of life, these dear children of ours, these twenty-four millions of wage-earners, are gathered beneath the ample skirts of that dear Mother of yours and ours, the Metropolitan! [Applause.]

XIV

SPEECHES OF COURTESY

Occasions for "Courtesy" speeches. Introduction and presentation. Like inspirational speaking. Controversy to be avoided. Do not be lengthy. What to say. Speeches of acceptance and acknowledgment.

At banquets, conventions, and similar meetings, one frequently is called upon to make what we may call speeches of courtesy. One may be called upon to introduce a prominent visiting speaker, to make an address of presentation to some official or employee, to welcome someone home from a journey abroad, and the like. Or one may be in the position of honored guest, and be called upon to acknowledge speeches of welcome and of presentation. Tact and gracefulness in making or acknowledging such speeches is of considerable importance.

INTRODUCTION AND PRESENTATION

Like inspirational speaking. In many ways, the speech introducing a noted guest, or presenting him a token of the regard in which the assembled audience holds him, resembles the inspirational speech. The purpose of the speaker should be to exalt the individual who is the subject of his discourse, and to make impressive the works and services rendered by him. Illustrative of speeches of this type are the numerous addresses made in honor of Colonel Charles Lindbergh last year, upon his return from his transatlantic flight.

Controversy to be avoided. In honoring a distinguished guest, or in presenting a speaker of wide reputation, care should be taken to avoid controversy of all kinds, political or personal, and to say nothing antagonistic to the work or character of the person who is being introduced. Reference

to any sort of differences between the guest and his audience, if any exist, should be avoided.

Do not be lengthy. In speeches introducing another speaker, brevity is a necessity. Nothing is more tactless or out of place than a long discussion by the chairman or other person making the introduction of some subject in which *he* is interested. He should always remember that he is not the speaker of the day. Violation of this rule not only renders the person offending unpopular, but it makes it difficult for the principal speaker to make a good impression. Akin to the fault of being too lengthy in making speeches of introduction, is the mistake of having too many speakers on the program preceding the speaker of the day. This rule was notably violated in several of the receptions tendered to Baron von Huenefeld, Captain Koehl, and Major Fitzmaurice on the occasion of their transatlantic flight. In one such reception, the author heard no less than eleven speakers, representing every political and racial order in the city, who took up time on the program before the "Three Musketeers of the Air" were introduced.

What to say. In general, as indicated above, the speech of introduction should refer briefly and constructively to the work, achievements, and character of the person being introduced. The tendency, at least, should be to praise the speaker in all of these respects, and thus to give him a favorable standing with the audience. Professor Ernest Bernbaum, then chairman of the Department of English in the University of Illinois, made an especially pleasing speech of introduction in presenting Professor Grierson of Aberdeen University to the English Journal Club. He said, in brief, that he felt it desirable to present the audience to the speaker, rather than the contrary, because Professor Grierson's reputation as a scholar and editor had preceded him; he then outlined the purposes of the club, linking them tactfully with the interests of the speaker.

Shailer Matthews, in presenting the then President Wilson to an audience in Columbus, Ohio, showed an unusual sense

of appropriateness when he said only, "Ladies and Gentlemen: The President."

In speeches presenting tokens of regard to a guest of honor, the same general topics should be touched upon. The speech may permissibly be longer than the ordinary speech of introduction, but even here lengthiness is taboo.

The general rules of vividness through concrete detail and imagery which govern the inspirational address apply to the speech of presentation. Often an inspiring note may be struck by showing how the work of the guest of honor has led to regional or national improvement.

SPEECHES OF ACCEPTANCE AND ACKNOWLEDGMENT

In responding to a speech of introduction, the speaker may, if he deems it advisable, thank the chairman for his remarks; but ordinarily it is better to plunge at once into the prepared speech. In making acknowledgments, the speaker must take care to avoid any appearance of conceit.

In responding to speeches of presentation, personal thanks are quite appropriate. Usually a modest disclaimer of the praise which has been accorded the speaker should be made. Colonel Lindbergh gained admiration for himself by his attitude in situations of this kind. He usually said that he regarded the honors bestowed on him not as personal recognition, but as evidence of the growing interest in aviation. From that point, he usually discussed the importance of commercial flying. It is almost always well, when accorded such recognition, to attribute it to the cause involved rather than to personal esteem. This gives the speaker, furthermore, an opportunity to address the audience on the subjects in which he is most interested.

The tactful and graceful speech of acceptance and acknowledgment finds excellent illustration in the remarks of Charles M. Schwab, upon being awarded a bronze tablet in recognition of his services during the war. This speech was delivered April 18, 1921, before the New York Chamber

of Commerce, in response to an eloquent tribute paid Mr. Schwab by Darwin P. Kingsley, president of the chamber.

Mr. Schwab, appropriately, began with a personal introduction expressing his gratitude for the recognition awarded him. He followed with a couple of anecdotes, humorous in character, the effect of which was to disclaim modestly any claim that he might have to such an honor:

When I was a young man, coming home from the mills one day, very proud of the importance of my position as manager, a working man's wife and little girl passed by, and the wife said to the little child, "Look, dear, that is Mr. Schwab in the buggy." I was seated in a buggy beside a colored driver, and the little girl immediately asked, "Which one, mamma?" (Laughter). . . .

Just after the war, I was in England, and I met a soldier one day, who was decorated with medals from one shoulder to the other, and I said, "Now, there is some great distinguished man whom I must meet and get his history," and, going up to the man, I asked him if he would mind telling me the circumstances that led to all these honors that he possessed, and he said he would do so with pleasure. He said, "Now, this one, this first large medal that you see on my left, I received by mistake, and I have had all the others given to me because I had the first one."

Having thus gracefully expressed a feeling of modesty, Mr. Schwab paid tribute to Mr. Kingsley, and voiced in so doing his appreciation:

As I sat here, thinking of the honors that come to men, I could think of no honor that I should more highly prize than the honor possessed by the President of this great and distinguished Chamber of Commerce of New York—a man who reflects credit upon the Chamber, who is human enough in his heart and in his soul to express the sentiments of appreciation for men, that we all neglect too much. [Applause.] That, to my mind, is true honor, and that, to my mind, is true American citizenship.

In my long experience with men and things, I have found that the best work and the best effort of every man who is worth while come under the spirit of approval of his fellow men; that you will never get the best that is in any man—individually or patriotically or in any other way—except under the stimulus of approval from the men worth while, whom he regards as his friends. [Applause.]

Mr. Schwab then talked interestingly of foreign and domestic problems for the bulk of his talk, reverting to personal matters only in his conclusion:

My wife, who graces this meeting, with your kindly permission and at your invitation [applause]—my wife had a very pretty maid, and I had a very handsome farmhand, and the two fell in love with each other. The maid was accustomed to the ways of New York society, while the man, who was honest and straightforward, was a man who had been accustomed to the ways of the country. However, in due time, the wedding took place.

We were all present, and greatly overjoyed at the happy marriage—the bride with her face wreathed in smiles of happiness, and the groom a picture of keen satisfaction. When the ceremony was completed, I turned to him, and said, "John, you have forgotten to greet the bride." John said, "By George, you are right," and taking her by the hand, he said, "I am happy to meet you." [Laughter.]

Now, my friends, he might have said a great deal more, but he could not have expressed more, either of his love or sentiment, than he did express. And so your humble speaker today, however uncouth, however unpolished may have been his words, however irregular may be the formation of his sentences, no man, with all the eloquence of your President, or of Mr. Depew, or of Demosthenes, could express a sentiment deeper than that which I feel in my heart this moment, which wells up into my breast and overwhelms me. This is something that will live while life lasts, something which has brought a thrill of satisfaction that is inexpressible in words.

American citizens deserve no credit for doing their best to protect their country. There is scarcely an American citizen who has not done that thing. There is not an American citizen who would not do the same thing over again, whatever might be the consequences. [Applause]. . . .

Mr. Schwab concluded effectively with an appeal for efforts to "win the peace," and with personal acknowledgment to his hearers for their tribute to him.[2]

[2] The entire text of this speech may be found in *Modern Eloquence*, Vol. IV.

XV

THE AFTER-DINNER SPEECH

Types of after-dinner speeches. General characteristics. Not a "serious" speech. Brevity. Planning the talk. Subject and purpose. Analyzing the subject. The familiar. The striking. Exaggeration. Feeling of superiority. Gentle raillery. Speech structure. Presentation. A good after-dinner speech.

Not all after-dinner speeches are of the type which has come to be recognized by that name. It is appropriate at banquets to make speeches of explanation, reports, inspirational speeches, good-will speeches, or speeches on matters of policy. Speeches of presentation and acceptance are frequently given. An examination of the three volumes of after-dinner speeches in *Modern Eloquence* will reveal how many kinds of talks are included under the general term "after-dinner speaking." There is, however, the *true* after-dinner speech, designed primarily to entertain and amuse the hearers, and it is this type which we are to discuss briefly here.

GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS

Not a "serious" speech. Informality, geniality, humor, absence of controversy and criticism, and a general light, optimistic tone are the leading characteristics of the good after-dinner speech. Whatever else it may be, the speech delivered after an elaborate banquet should not be solemn, deeply serious, nor controversial. It should have the "lighter touch." The speaker, even though he may, and ordinarily should, present some worthwhile thoughts, should aim mainly to make his audience enjoy itself.

Brevity. Like the speech of introduction, the after-dinner speaker must be brief. Five, or at the most, ten minutes, is long enough to speak.

PLANNING THE TALK

Subject and purpose. The first step in planning an after-dinner speech is to determine the subject and purpose. Sometimes, of course, the former may be assigned. Many after-dinner speakers regard their subject as something to *depart from* rather than to discuss, but ordinarily this is a mistake, and it is better to confine one's self to the subject assigned. If the choice of subject is left to the speaker, he should seek to ascertain what others on the program are to discuss, and endeavor to choose some topic related to the interests of the audience or organization, but different from the other subjects. The purpose of the true after-dinner speech is to entertain. Consequently some subject which the speaker believes he can make amusing to the audience should be chosen. Mark Twain followed this principle when he insisted on taking the subject, "The Babies," when addressing the audience of former soldiers in Chicago at the time of General Grant's visit. He mingled babies and military affairs in a most entertaining manner.

Some element of familiar knowledge to the audience should ordinarily be chosen as subject. If it is an insurance banquet, *Doorknobs I Have Turned* would be a good subject. *Our Clients,* the subject of the speech we reproduce at the end of the chapter, was well adapted to the audience of lawyers (the speaker in this case departed somewhat from his announced subject, however). *You Never Can Tell* was the title of a clever speech delivered at a banquet of intercollegiate debaters by a member of the teams. It dealt with the uncertainty of judges' decisions.

Analyzing the subject. The most difficult step in planning an entertaining speech, however, is not the choice of a topic. Almost any topic may be developed in a humorous manner. The problem of greatest difficulty is that of analyzing the subject to determine its humorous or entertaining aspects; and to this task most of the time spent in preparation should be given. The best advice is to turn over the topic in your

mind, thinking what elements of it are, or can be made humorous, and of incidents and ideas to illustrate these aspects.

The familiar. Humor most frequently arises when the details of the speech, as well as the main ideas, come within the everyday experience of the audience. Mark Twain, in the speech alluded to, built his entire laugh-producing fabric out of what were to the audience of soldiers two familiar things, war and babies. Mr. Coudert, in the speech at the end of this chapter, uses legal terms and legal experiences to touch off laughter. Generally, the more effective use is made of familiar things, the more entertaining the speech will be.

The striking. That which is novel, or unusual, always is attention-getting, and may be made entertaining. The laughter produced by Mr. Schwab, in the speech quoted in Chapter XIV, is due to his use of the unusual. In one anecdote related in that speech, he tells of a child who wondered which was Mr. Schwab, he or the colored driver beside whom he was riding. In another, the actions of the happy bridegroom, in "greeting" the bride by shaking her hand and saying, "I'm pleased to meet you," were laugh-provoking because of their unusual character.

Exaggeration. Exaggeration produces laughter, and is the basis of all slapstick comedy. Henry W. Grady, the eloquent Southern orator, created much merriment by telling of a man who, going down the cellar steps to fill his pitcher with milk, slipped on the top step and fell, "with such casual interruptions as the stairs afforded," to the bottom; whereupon his wife called out, "John, did you break the pitcher?" John replied, "No, but I'll be dinged if I don't."

Feeling of superiority. Another element of humor is present when, through the circumstances of an anecdote or story, the audience is made to feel superior to the characters therein. Another story of Grady's illustrates this point. He told of how some mischievous boys glued the pages of the parson's large Bible together. When the parson started to

read the lesson from the Scriptures, he read at the bottom of one page, "When Noah was 120 years old, he took unto himself a wife, who was"—and then he turned the pages—"140 cubits long, 40 cubits wide, built of gopher wood, and covered with pitch inside and out." The perplexity of the preacher caused great laughter, because the audience was "in" on the secret. Similarly, the feeling of superiority may be aroused by the downfall of extremely dignified people through the agency of the humble banana peel.

Gentle raillery. If used with tact, gentle raillery of the audience, or of the toastmaster and preceding speakers may be used to amuse. One speaker said, "I had a fine discourse prepared for you tonight, but I find that the gentleman who spoke before me has stolen my manuscript." The speaker may poke fun in a good-humored way at the frills and foibles of his hearers. The caution to be observed, of course, is that this funmaking must not be *too* personal.

Speech structure. The good after-dinner speech has a structure as definite as that of other addresses. The specific purpose is to amuse the audience by a humorous discussion of the subject chosen. The main ideas should be chosen to bring out points about the subject which definitely help to achieve the purpose. The familiar, the striking, gentle raillery, or ideas designed to create amusement through a feeling of superiority may be used. All kinds of details may be used, the requirement being that they contribute to the humor of the ideas.

One caution to be observed is that, in the use of stories and anecdotes, those chosen should in some way contribute to the speaker's ideas. It has been repeated in many books that the after-dinner speech should not be merely a string of funny stories. Again, the stories used should be reasonably new, and should involve some one of the elements of humor mentioned above. The unusual and the familiar will be found to be present in most good ones.

A formal introduction should not be used in most cases. Rather a few references to remarks of the chairman, perhaps

in the nature of repartee, or an amusing anecdote, should be used. It is rarely desirable to make a formal statement of the points to be covered in the speech.

Like the introduction, the conclusion should be informal. No summary of points is needed, but rather a brief and happy ending. A device used by many speakers to end an after-dinner speech is the utterance of a serious tribute to the organization, institution, purpose of the meeting, character of the guest of honor, or aims and ideals of the audience. Thus a speech otherwise somewhat trivial may strike an inspirational note at the end.

Presentation. Aliveness, good humor, suavity, and decorum should characterize the delivery of an after-dinner speech. The speaker must show by his bearing, voice, and facial expression that he is enjoying the situation and wants others to enjoy it with him. An antagonistic, combative, or unduly solemn manner would be quite out of place.

A GOOD AFTER-DINNER SPEECH

We have already referred to the three-volume collection of after-dinner speeches to be found in *Modern Eloquence.* Others may be found in *Models of Speech Composition,* by J. M. O'Neill, and in *Modern Speeches,* by H. C. Lindgren. Study of the speeches in these collections will reveal the use of most of the principles discussed above, and will be of profit to the person who wishes to develop his skill in this type of public address.

The following speech, delivered by Frederick R. Coudert at a dinner of the New York Bar in honor of one of its members, illustrates many of the qualities desirable in postprandial speaking, although it is somewhat weak in structure, lacking unity and close adherence to the subject. It illustrates particularly well the use of the familiar things of everyday life to create humor, everything in it being well adapted to the audience of lawyers. This speech was taken from *Modern Eloquence.*

Our Clients[1]

Mr. President and other venerable gentlemen:—I am grateful to you for this undeserved honor. I have few reminiscences. I do not know anything about the past, very little about the future, and less about the present. I had hoped that I would have some comfort in the companionship of my brother Carter (James C. Carter), but when he got up claiming to be sans teeth, sans eyes, sans taste, sans everything, when he invoked the favor of the audience and placed his plea wholly upon age, I felt that I was alone here to plead the privilege of infancy and to invoke the benefit of the statute.

I do not know, I repeat, a great deal about the great men who have passed before us. I have no opinion to speak of. In fact, my opinion on that subject is vague, and its value easily susceptible of illustration. One gentleman tonight mentioned a great advocate, George Wood. I can remember, looking back to early boyhood, that venerable figure, and recall speaking to one of his contemporaries about him. He said, "Yes, a client of mine got an opinion from him once." "Well," I said, "how was it done; how much did he charge?"—for even in those days the professional instinct asserted itself. [Laughter.] "Well," he said, "my client went to him and said, Mr. Wood, I would like to have your opinion on these papers." "Give me the papers; come back tomorrow." And he went back the next day and Mr. Wood said, "Fifty dollars," and nothing more. The client was intelligent, and assumed that he should pay him that sum, which he did. "What about my papers?" he said. "They are not worth a damn," said he. [Laughter.]

If this is a sample of the methodical business practices of the ancient Bar, I am not surprised that our learned and distinguished brother should have attained prosperity and distinction both together. I attribute it rather to that, than to the happy accident of his sleeping in the solitudes of Brooklyn of which you have spoken.

That this is a great day for Brooklyn we all realize. The hordes of Brooklyn men who have appeared tonight, drawn by the prospects of this feast and the allurements—they are bound to be deceived—the allurements of a speech apiece, are such as have never been known before. The first arrangement for the program of this evening's speechmaking was the best. I understood that our distinguished friend was to be partitioned. You will observe

[1] Frederick R. Coudert. Reprinted from *Modern Eloquence*, the Modern Eloquence Corporation, New York.

that out of respect to him I adopt the word usually applied to large communities. One was to have "Our Brother, his Mental Qualities," another the "Moral Qualities," another his "Stomach," and so on. It was found that there was enough of him to go around, but the difficulty was that every Brooklyn man wanted at least twenty minutes, and a computation of at least eighty speeches at twenty minutes could easily be made. Thus it had to be abandoned, and the desultory course which we have taken tonight was perforce selected. You now understand the unhappy faces of our Brooklyn friends, and may give them your sympathy. [Laughter.]

Let me tell them, however, that the manufacture of a speech is never in vain. Either they can find a client who will take it upon reasonable terms, or they may discharge it on some future occasion.

I read but recently a story in Plutarch's *Morals,* a work that I have no doubt Mr. Silliman reads in his leisure moments. There was a certain officer of Thrace, who, taking a dislike to a dog, fired a stone at him. He missed the object, but struck his mother-in-law. [Laughter.] "It was not a bad shot," he philosophically exclaimed. I leave my Brooklyn friends to draw the moral.

As to speaking for our clients, I cannot be dictated to in that fashion. What have our clients done for us that we should do this for nothing for them? If there be a weak spot in the constitution and mental organization of Mr. Silliman, I fancy it has been an undue yielding to the caprices of clients. Let us be braver and bolder and stronger than he. Let them get all they are entitled to, and very little of that. [Laughter.] They are certainly not entitled to be admitted to our secret rites, nor to pervade this hall and its atmosphere with their uninvited and gratuitous presence.

Much has been said tonight to show that our profession of today, and our Bar, are equal to the profession and the Bar of the past. But, it is claiming more than we are entitled to if we insist that the Bar never has had as much honor, as much talent, as much industry, considering the vastly increased numbers in its ranks, and the vastly increased temptations today? It is idle to talk of a great body remaining stationary and immovable. The Pyramids of Egypt may do that, but no living organization ever will. We are improving or we are going back. It was a beautiful thought of Pascal that the human race was like a child, always growing, but never growing old. So of every large and organized body of learned and intelligent men.

And so especially it is with our profession, the profession of professions—if we do not keep ahead of the time we go back. The

examples that we have in these older men all stimulate us to nobler effort, perhaps, and teach, after all, that in the record of an upright and honorable life, there is much to stimulate even the baser motives of self-interest. But as the great mass of our people are being instructed, so should we rise with and above the rest, and although each one of us will not deserve, as few of us ever can, the eulogies that pour from our hearts through our lips tonight in the presence of a beloved and honored brother, each man may do his best in his own sphere at least, so that some of us who may remain behind him shall not be unworthy to stand by the monument that shows where he rests, and say one kindly and loving word for him.

I am exceeding my time, but no one will follow more sincerely the echo of what was said tonight of Mr. Silliman. I am not prepared, like Brother Carter, to recite, in advance, his obituary notice. Far distant be that day! Many of us will fall by the wayside before he is gathered to his fathers. But we will continue to honor and to love him, and to honor and love those younger brethren who grow in honor by our side, for we know the increased and accumulated weight of daily temptations that press upon their shoulders. For him I can only say, in closing, that I know I am giving voice to what you all feel—Deal with him gently, gentle Time. [Great applause.]

XVI

RADIO AND TELEPHONE SPEAKING

No new principles involved. Hints on presentation. Preparing the speech. Interestingness. Vividness. Brevity. Telephone speaking. Distinctness of utterance. Pleasing vocal quality. Answering calls. Courtesy pays.

CONTRARY to current opinion, radio speaking involves no new principles of importance. The same methods which produce interesting speeches under other circumstances succeed on the radio, and speakers who are able to interest audiences with which they have "eye-contact" are usually able to adapt themselves to the peculiar conditions of the air. This has also been found to be true in the case of the broadcasting of song and instrumental music. The great artists who have appeared on chain programs have usually broadcast well.

Perhaps the most marked difference between ordinary speaking and talking over the radio is to be found in the physical conditions of broadcasting. The speaker is alone with the announcer and the microphone. He misses the intimate contact with his hearers to which he has been accustomed. He has no way of telling whether he is holding attention, or whether the listeners-in have turned their dials to another station. It is this situation which gives rise to the greatest difficulty of broadcasting. Again, because of the desirability of uninterrupted utterance, speakers are usually requested to write out and read their speeches. This makes it difficult for them to develop the strong sense of communication which is just as necessary over the air as it is in ordinary address. To overcome these conditions, it is vital that the speaker maintain his directness, enthusiasm, and sincerity. Radio presentation must be even more full of these qualities than direct speaking. The speaker must

feel, as he talks, that he is addressing, not the impersonal microphone, but a great audience of listeners-in. He must visualize them, and make an effort to hold their attention by his voice, just as he would were he speaking to them in a hall.

HINTS ON PRESENTATION

Since presentation presents most of the difficulties in broadcasting, we begin by making a few suggestions on the *manner* of speaking.

1. Maintain communicativeness, enthusiasm, and sincerity. These will hold attention over the air just as they do under ordinary conditions.

2. Keep your breathing frequent and deep, in order that the tones may be well-rounded and of good quality.

3. Enunciate clearly and distinctly, but do not "bite off" your words.

4. Be sure not to mispronounce proper names and technical terms which you may use. You can never tell what critics may be in your audience.

5. Use change of pitch and rate to give expression to what you are saying. Change of volume, or force, may be used, too, but too quiet a tone will not be heard, and too loud a tone will "blast" the microphone.

6. Judging from the speech of such announcers as Graham McNamee, Phillips Carlin, and Quin Ryan, a rate varying from 100 to 150 words a minute broadcasts most effectively.

7. Preserve the distance from the microphone suggested by your announcer, and *do not change your position nor turn the head.*

8. Get your mind off of the microphone and on your subject and hearers.

9. Rehearse your speech, with manuscript, before your appearance, so that you may be fluent. If, during presentation, you falter, try to "carry on" without spending much time in correcting your error.

PREPARING THE SPEECH

Except that direct sales appeals are almost always forbidden, any of the types of public speeches may be made over the air. Explanations, reports, inspirational speeches, discussions of policy, after-dinner speeches, good-will speeches, speeches of introduction, welcome, and acceptance, are all broadcast. The principles used in composing these speeches for radio presentation are the same as those used in other circumstances. However, certain desirable traits of the public speech *must* be present in successful radio talks, and we therefore bring them to attention in the following paragraphs.

Interestingness. If the radio speaker is to hold his audience, he must interest them from the very first words he utters. Consequently, he must make an especial effort to grip attention in his introduction, by appealing to some of the vital wants and desires of his hearers, or by using the striking, the concrete, or the familiar. Throughout his talk, too, these elements must appear. More than other speeches, perhaps, the radio talk must be adapted to the hearers. The speaker must make a constant attempt to relate his subject and ideas to the popular knowledge and interests.

Vividness. The radio talk must be vivid. A series of striking mental pictures must be flashed into the air. Vivid comparisons, specific cases, details, must be constantly before the hearers. Quin Ryan of Station WGN in Chicago is a popular sports announcer and describer of great civic events because his talks are a constant stream of vivid details. He is able to bring a great civic parade, or a football game, before his audience so vividly that it is difficult for them to "tune out." Those who have heard him describe scenes at Soldiers' Field in Chicago know of his skill in painting word-pictures. The great sloping sides of the stadium, the throngs of men and women in colorful attire, the sunlight slanting over from the west, the raucous cheers of the crowds, the smell of fresh-roasted popcorn, the blare of bands, are all

pictured in his vivid speech. He utilizes all forms of imagery. When a football game is driving towards its close, he utilizes imagery of motion, and we see the star halfback "slipping, sliding, plunging, stumbling, and crashing his way to the goal." This pictorial quality Mr. Ryan carries into all of his announcing, and the business man who is to talk over the radio would profit by listening to this speaker. Graham McNamee of New York is another announcer who puts action and life into his words, and who is equally successful in bringing to his hearers the pageantry of a presidential inauguration or the excitement of a great sports event. Contrast the work of such men with the droning, lifeless, and abstract talk of the ordinary announcer, and you have the elements of successful speaking over the radio in a nutshell.

Claude G. Bowers, in the keynote speech at the Democratic national convention of 1928, utilized imagery and vivid phraseology to carry his message over the radio as well as to the assembled delegates. The speech was in marked contrast to the platitudinous efforts of other orators at the convention, and was the bright spot of the early campaign oratory of 1928. "The black-horse cavalry cantering up Pennsylvania Avenue" was one image which stood out in the minds of his hearers. As an example of the kind of sentence structure and diction which broadcasts well, we submit the following passage from his speech:

Now they hope to drug the conscience of the nation with the doped soothing syrup of a fake prosperity, and we want to know what prosperity they mean. They point to a few powerful corporations enjoying the pap of paternalistic privilege, and our answer is that you cannot judge the prosperity of a people by the earnings of a privileged monopoly.

Many years ago Thomas Jefferson advised a friend impressed with the evidence of prosperity in the homes of the nobility in Paris and Versailles, to go out into the country and look into the pots in the fireplaces of the peasants. That is our answer now.

Four million jobless men is not prosperity; 1,000,000 abandoned farms is not prosperity; the utter ruin of the basic industry of

America is not prosperity; the failure of 4,000 banks in the seven years of normalcy is not prosperity; the failure of 23,146 commercial houses in 1927 is not prosperity; and if this year's record is foreshadowed by the first four months there will be 28,000 commercial failures in 1928[1] . . . .

Brevity. The radio speaker, of all speakers, must know when to stop. Listeners, who in the case of an ordinary address would remain out of courtesy to the speaker, have no compunction in twirling the dials to a new station on the instant that interest lags. While specific conditions will govern the length of the speech, it is reasonably safe to say that it takes a speaker of unusual talents to hold a radio audience more than fifteen or twenty minutes. To accomplish even that requires exceptional interestingness and vividness. An especial effort must be made, therefore, to condense one's remarks into as short a form as is possible.

TELEPHONE SPEAKING

The telephone companies have for years printed useful suggestions regarding the manner of conversation by wire. These suggestions are the outcome of considerable scientific research on the part of company engineers, and to follow them should be the aim of every one who seeks to improve his effectiveness. Leading business organizations have made an effort to train their employees in this respect. The universal use of the telephone as a means of transmitting orders and instructions, of giving information, and even of making sales, demands proficiency on the part of those who transact business.

Distinctness of utterance. To avoid irritation and confusion on the part of the hearer, one should take pains to enunciate clearly. In addition to this, one should observe the instructions "do not shout into the mouthpiece" (this produces "blasting"), "talk directly into the mouthpiece

[1] The use of this quotation carries with it no implied endorsement or condemnation of the political opinions expressed therein.

from a distance of a few inches," and the like. Especial care should be taken to utter figures distinctly, whether in giving them to the operator or in conveying information to the hearer. Facts and figures of importance, for example, the details of a telephoned order, should be repeated by the hearer to make sure that they have been understood. If there is difficulty in making clear the initials of a person, or in similar cases, a useful device is to verify the letters by association with familiar words, such as "T as in Thomas, B as in Benjamin," and so forth. The general suggestions regarding definiteness and completeness made in Chapter VIII, Part Two, should be followed in giving information over the telephone.

Pleasing vocal quality. Telephone operators are trained to the end that their voices may be of a pleasing quality. This practice might well be followed by business executives in training their employees in the use of the telephone. The telephone voice should be based upon proper breathing and openness of the tone passages, so that its quality may be full and rich. A harsh, rasping tone conveys the impression of an unpleasant and antagonistic personality. A "nasal twang" makes an equally bad impression. A very little attention given to the proper use of the voice will be of immense benefit to individuals and concerns who establish part of their reputation with customers by telephone conversation.

Answering calls. The "HELLO" of the American and the "Are you there?" of the Englishman are equally useless as answers to calls. They convey little except that someone is answering the 'phone. It is recommended by telephone companies that when answering calls, one should state the name of the concern and the name of the individual answering, as "Jones Foundry Company, Mr. Robinson speaking," or "Credit Department, Mr. Welch talking." Thus the person calling is informed at once to whom he is talking.

Courtesy pays. Not only *what is said* in answering calls, but *the manner in which it is said,* is important. An im-

patient, curt, brusque manner creates ill will, while a pleasant and courteous one begets friendship. Similarly throughout the conversation, patience and courtesy pay dividends. Executives should give attention to all details of the telephone conversation of their subordinates. It is a simple matter to inculcate clear, pleasant speech, and good manners in telephone conversation, and the effort made will result in improved public relations.

XVII

CONDUCTING A MEETING

Degree of formality. Duties of the chairman. Duties of the secretary. The order of business. For single assemblies. For permanent organizations. Rules of order. Discretion of chairman. Committee work.

THE degree of formality, and of the adherence to parliamentary rules, varies considerably in the meetings of committees, boards, and other bodies of business organizations, and in the public meetings which business men are occasionally called upon to conduct. In general, it is well to avoid formality as much as possible. A strict adherence to the rules of parliamentary procedure would obviously be cumbersome in the meetings of a small committee, and would impair rather than promote efficiency.

Duties of the chairman. The chairman, or other presiding officer, has the following duties:

1. To call the meeting to order.
2. To state and put questions to the assembly.
3. To decide questions of order.
4. To decide tie votes by casting a ballot.
5. To recognize speakers, and in general to expedite business.
6. To preserve an impartial attitude, and when wishing to speak on a pending question, to call another to the chair.

The above duties apply in particular to the chairman of a public meeting, or of the session of a deliberative assembly. To what extent the chairman of a committee or board should follow the functions named depends upon the usage of the organization.

In serving as chairman of a public meeting, when speakers are to be introduced, or as a toastmaster, one should remember that the duty of the chairman is to introduce the speakers

briefly, and not to indulge in extended discussion. The chairman should exercise tact and good humor in dealing with various situations which arise, and endeavor to keep the program moving as smoothly as possible. Where there is debate, the chairman should serve as moderator between the two factions, and should see to it that each gets a fair hearing.

Duties of the secretary. In general, the secretary should keep an accurate record of the proceedings of the meeting. If the sessions are governed by parliamentary law, he should have a copy of the rules of order on his table, together with a constitution, by-laws, and standing rules of the organization.

THE ORDER OF BUSINESS

For single assemblies. When a mass meeting is called, or when a group is meeting for the first time, the standard order of business is as follows:

1. Election of a chairman.
2. Election of a secretary.
3. Adoption of resolutions, or
4. Appointment of a committee to draft resolutions, or
5. Speeches as provided in the program.

For permanent organizations. The regular order of business for permanent organizations is as follows:

1. Reading of the minutes of the previous meeting, and their correction or approval.
2. Reports of standing committees.
3. Reports of special committees.
4. Unfinished business.
5. New business.
6. Adjournment.

Either of these methods of procedure may be modified by the custom of individual organizations, but in a broad way they represent the best order. The chairman should see to it that the established order is followed.

RULES OF ORDER

In the conduct of meetings governed by parliamentary rules of order, there are many customs concerning the precedence, amendment, and debatability of motions. The chairman should be familiar with at least the more important of these rules, so that he may decide points of parliamentary law immediately. The standard work on this subject is Robert's *Rules of Order,* upon which practically all subsequent works are based. The chairman should also be familiar with special rules adopted by the organization over which he is presiding.

To enter into a detailed discussion of the rules of order would be to go beyond the function of this work. Robert's *Rules of Order,* or an authoritative condensation, should be familiar to those who are called upon to preside over deliberative bodies.

According to Robert, "the ordinary motions rank as follows, and any of them (except to amend) can be made when one of a lower order is pending, but none can supersede one of a higher order; the previous question requires a two-thirds vote, the others only a majority:

Undebatable:

To fix the time to which to adjourn.
To adjourn (when unqualified). Cannot be amended.
For the orders of the day. Cannot be amended.
To lay on the table. Cannot be amended.
The previous question (⅔ vote). Cannot be amended.

Debatable:

To postpone to a certain time. Can be amended.
To commit or refer. Can be amended.
To amend. Can be amended.
To postpone indefinitely."[1]

Discretion of chairman. Robert himself gives excellent advice to the chairmen of meetings held under parliamentary law:

[1] H. M. Robert, *Rules of Order,* ed. 1901, p. 10.

Know all about parliamentary law, but do not try to show off your knowledge. Never be technical, nor be any more strict than is absolutely necessary for the good of the meeting. Use your judgment; the assembly may be of such a nature through its ignorance of parliamentary usages and peaceable disposition, that a strict enforcement of the rules, instead of assisting, would greatly hinder business; but in large assemblies, where there is much work to be done, and especially where there is liability to trouble, the only safe course is to require a strict observance of the rules.[2]

COMMITTEE WORK

Committee meetings are presided over by the chairman of the group, if one has been named, if not, by the first member on the list of names. The discussions may be completely informal, and in business committees usually are, or they may proceed according to parliamentary practices. When the committee is called together to decide upon the adoption of a report, it is customary to have a proposed draft of the report prepared in advance by a member or members. This draft is read through, discussed and voted upon section by section. Amendments are offered, discussed, and voted upon as each section is taken up. Usually at the end the report, as amended, is adopted *in toto*. If the minority desires, it may adopt a minority report, which then is taken before the larger board or assembly for its decision.

---

[2] *Ibid*, p. 162.

BUSINESS AND PROFESSIONAL SPEAKING

PART III

THE PERSONAL CONFERENCE

XVIII

THE IMPORTANCE OF CONFERENCE SPEAKING

Definition. Preparation for conference speaking. The manner of speaking in conference. Speaking and writing. Methods of presenting material. The conferrer and the conferee. Types of business speech in conference. Instructions. Oral reports. Sales talks. Inspirational speaking. Discussions of policy. Good-will talks. Introduction, welcome, and acceptance talks. Telephone speaking.

INVESTIGATIONS have determined that the average person uses about 30,000 words a day, in orally communicating his ideas to others. This does not mean 30,000 separate words but counts all repetitions. From the time we get up in the morning until we go to bed at night we are talking to people frequently. We talk to the members of our families. We go to our work and we talk to our business associates. We engage in conferences with both members of the organization and others who come to do business with us. At the end of our business day we return to our families and engage in more talk.

It will thus be seen that the speaking of the average individual is practically all private rather than public. To be sure many of us are called upon at times to make public speeches, but the average person talks a thousand times in private or in conference to once in public before an audience.

How we use these 30,000 words determines, to a large extent, the success or failure we make of our lives. Since most of these words are used in conferences, it is necessary for us to acquire proficiency in conversational speaking, if they are to help us achieve success. To effectively handle facts and opinions in a personal conference is, in most kinds of work, to possess an ability which is an open sesame to success.

DEFINITION

A personal conference may be defined as a meeting of two persons in which one seeks to inform or to persuade the other. It is thus a personal contact, with each person for the most part replying directly to the statements made by the other. In public speeches the response of each individual hearer is usually not orally expressed. In the conference, on the other hand, the response is usually made orally. The hearer stops the speaker whenever he wishes for the purpose of asking questions and raising objections. Whenever the speaker makes a statement which is not clear, the hearer interrupts. Since responses are for the most part orally expressed, there is a direct "give and take" in conference which is not present in the usual public speech.

Since the response is made orally the conference presentation must be far more flexible than the public speech. The public speech may be outlined and prepared for presentation in a rather rigid manner. The speaker can plan the whole thing from beginning to end and decide exactly where he wishes to introduce each idea. This is not true of conference speaking. Here, to be sure, the speaker must have a plan for his talk just as the public speaking must have a plan, but in conference that plan must be capable of far more adjustment than is usually necessary in a public speech. When the hearer, in a conference, stops the speaker and asks a question the speaker has to stop and answer it. Then he must be able to pick up his main presentation again and proceed. The length of the interruption is of course determined by the nature of the question. It may be that it can be answered in one sentence or it may take five or ten minutes.

Another difference between public and private speaking is that the order of ideas in a public speech is determined in advance and usually is not varied. In private speaking the speaker also determines the order in which he would like to present his ideas, but the conference may develop in such a way that this predetermined order must be changed. In

addition to this, the public speaker usually prepares for a speech having a definite time limit. The private speaker also likes to prepare for a time limit but he never knows whether he will be forced to close before that limit is reached or whether he will be required to talk longer than the prepared limit. In short, the whole presentation of the conference speaker must be capable of far more flexibility than the usual public speech.

A *group conference* may be defined as the meeting of a group of people for the purpose of discussing problems of interest. Group conferences are very common in business and professional organizations. Conferences of the board of directors, the manufacturing committee, the merchandising committee, the shop committee of workers, the principal executives of a corporation are a part of the day by day work of most business organizations.

The success of group conferences depends more upon the skill of the chairman or conference leader, in bringing together divergent opinions, than upon any other one thing. The chairman should enjoy the respect and confidence of the group. He should be able to guide the discussion in such a manner as to probe for all the information which might throw light on the solution of the problem. His is a difficult task calling for a high degree of skill in speech.

PREPARATION FOR CONFERENCE SPEAKING

Preparation for conference speaking requires just as much hard work as that required for public speaking, and in some cases it will require more. The public speaker sometimes gives less effort to his preparation for the reason that he knows the members of the audience probably will not interrupt to ask questions and to raise objections. Of course, the public speaker should not give less time to the preparation of his speeches than he gives to his private talks because the success of both depends upon exactly the same things; skill used in the analysis of the hearer, in the selection of the

material with which to influence his conduct, in the acquiring of complete information about the subject. In both the speaker must have a complete mastery of all of the facts about the subject and the audience. The reason that some public speakers do give less time to their speeches is that the problem does not seem as difficult to them. In conference speaking they know that their ideas will be directly questioned and objected to and therefore they realize that more complete preparation is necessary. It must be mentioned that the average public speech will be more successful if the speaker makes just as careful and thorough a preparation as he would for a conference. Successful public speeches and successful private talks require the same amount of time and energy in their preparation. Preparation for both must be painstaking, if the highest success is to be achieved.

METHODS OF PRESENTING MATERIAL

The methods of presenting material in a personal conference are, in general, the same as those used for the presentation of a public speech. In order to command the attention which is necessary for success, the presentation must be interesting, vivid, and persuasive.

THE CONFERRER AND THE CONFEREE

The speaker who seeks the conference with the hearer is called the *conferrer*. He is the one who seeks to inform or to persuade the hearer. The person with whom the conferrer confers is called the *conferee*. The conferrer seeks and initiates the conference with a definite purpose. He wants to inform the conferee of some facts of value to him or he wants to influence his conduct in a definite manner. He may wish to sell him a product or services or he may want to secure his agreement to a certain principle, as a guide to future policy. In the internal organization of a business this latter is very important. It is necessary in all business organizations to hold great numbers of conferences in order that the

executives may decide on the policies of the organization. Questions of policy are almost always decided in conferences, rather than by writing. Writing is slow and laborious, while speech is quick and easy. The exchange of views by writing takes a great deal of time, frequently weeks and months, while the same exchange by conference is often accomplished in a few minutes or hours. As an example, the recent merger of two great automobile companies was effected through three days of conferences between the two executive heads.

METHODS OF CONDUCTING GROUP CONFERENCES

The group conference is simply an expansion of the personal conference to include a group of people. The general principles of personal conference speaking apply to group conference speaking.

One common method of conducting group conferences is for the leader to ask one or two members of the group, in advance of the time of meeting, to prepare to open the discussion by making short talks on those particular aspects of the problem with which they are familiar. This method is particularly useful when the subject is one which will not itself provoke discussion. When the subject is a particularly live one, there is usually no need of using this method because many members of the group will be ready to speak.

In the following chapters, we have discussed the subject of conference speaking largely from the point of view of the personal conference, because group conference speaking is simply enlarged personal conference speaking. With one exception, all of the principles which apply to personal conference speaking apply to group conference speaking. The only difference is that the speaking of the group conference must be adapted to a larger number of people than in the personal conference. In both, the speaker must have an extremely flexible presentation. He must be able to adapt his ideas quickly to the ideas and opinions which are expressed.

TYPES OF BUSINESS SPEECH IN CONFERENCE

All of Part II of this book is devoted to an exposition of the methods used in making successfully the principal types of business speeches. Most of these types are used in both public and private speaking. The only one not used in conference is radio speaking. All of the others are used more in conferences than they are in public speaking. The proper method of preparation of each is discussed in Part II. As an additional aid in their preparation we have included good examples, taken from business sources. Let us briefly indicate here how these types are used in personal conferences.

Instructions. When the executive issues orders to his subordinates the method used is oral, just as often as it is written. The oral method has some advantages over the written in that the conferrer can directly determine the conferee's understanding of his orders. When they are issued in writing he has no way of determining whether they are understood, except by how they are carried out. This is often a very costly procedure.

Oral reports. Reports are made more frequently in conference than in writing or in public speaking. The superintendent makes a report on a plan for reorganizing the factory. The general manager asks questions and raises objections. The matter is usually decided in conference.

Sales talks. Sales talks are given in conference many many times more often than they are given in the form of a public speech. In fact, it is probably no exaggeration to say that 999 out of a 1,000 are given in this way. The salesman must know how to handle his subject and himself effectively in conference.

Inspirational talks. Inspirational talks are probably made more often in the form of a speech before groups, as at sales conventions. They are, however, frequently given in private. The executive wants to inspire one man to greater effort without wasting the time of his other subordinates. He does it in conference.

Discussions of policy. Discussions of policy are usually carried on by conferences rather than by public meetings. The principal executives of an organization reach agreements about their policies in conference.

Good-will talks. Good-will talks are also often made in conference. The conferrer wants to secure the good will of one man because it is necessary for his success. What better way is there than personal conference?

Introduction, welcome, and acceptance talks. These are likewise found more often in conference than in public speeches. A business man introduces a caller to an associate. Another welcomes a new associate to the organization. Another accepts new responsibilities given to him by his superior. All take place in conferences.

Telephone speaking. Finally, all telephone speaking is private speaking. From the very nature of the means of communication used, conference is the only effective method.

SUMMARY

The average individual uses about 30,000 words a day. Most of these words are used in private speaking, since the average individual has very few opportunities for public speaking. The effectiveness with which these words are used largely determines the individual's success or failure.

A personal conference is defined as a meeting of two, sometimes more, persons in which one seeks to inform or to persuade the other. In the conference the parties reply to each other directly. In public speaking there is usually no direct reply.

Conference speaking must be far more flexible than public speaking. The speaker must be prepared to vary his presentation to meet each situation as it develops. He must be prepared to answer all questions and objections to the satisfaction of the conferee.

The manner of speaking in conference is either formal or informal, depending on relation of parties to each other.

The speaker in a conference is called the conferrer, while the person, with whom he confers, is called the conferee.

Conference speaking is much more satisfactory as a means of communication than writing because it is a great saver of time and energy. To settle a business problem may take weeks or months by the correspondence method, yet it may be settled in an hour by the conference method. This is the reason that most business organizations are making use of our rapid systems of transportation and our efficient telephone service to take more and more of their messages to their hearers directly.

All of the types of business speech discussed in Part II are used in conferences, except radio speaking, and most of them are used far more often in conference than in public speaking.

XIX

APPLYING ANALYSIS TO CONFERENCES

The specific purpose. The conferrer's knowledge of the conferee. The kind of facts needed. Age. Intelligence. Groups. The hearer's opinions. Hearer's knowledge of the subject. Hearer's activity level. Is the hearer quick to adopt new ideas? The hearer's wants and interests. Compelling the hearer's attention to his wants. The speaker's control of external conditions. A plan for analysis. Analysis chart.

As has been pointed out in the chapters on analysis in Part I, speech cannot be purposively directed until the speaker has a complete analysis of hearer. The purpose of this chapter is to indicate concretely how this analysis should be made.

THE SPECIFIC PURPOSE

The reader will recall that in the chapter on "Organizing a Talk" in Part I, we stated that the first thing the speaker must do is to decide exactly what he hopes to accomplish by the talk. This statement of the speaker's aim is called the *specific purpose.* The first thing the conference speaker must do, therefore, is to decide exactly what his purpose is. It is only when he knows what his specific purpose is that he can obtain a correct analysis of the hearer. The hearer's analysis should always be considered in reference to this specific purpose, for the reason that when the speaker's purpose varies, the analysis will also be different. The speaker's purpose may be to satisfy the insurance needs of Mr. Brown. It may be to convince the president of the X Motor Car Company that the appropriation for advertising should be doubled. It may be to make an oral report to the factory manager on the installation of a new machine. It may be to introduce Mr. Smith to the advertising manager of the X Steel Corporation.

The specific purpose indicates the speaker's desire to influence the thought and conduct of the hearer in a certain definite manner. It should be selected before any of the types of business speech, discussed in Part II of this book, can be effectively prepared and presented. It not only indicates the exact type of speech but also exactly how the hearer is to be influenced.

THE CONFERRER'S KNOWLEDGE OF THE CONFEREE

When the conferee is known to the speaker, a large part, and perhaps all, of the information to be obtained by analysis is already known. This is especially true of much of the speaking which is necessary for the proper functioning of the internal organization of a business. The association together of the men composing the organization has given them many opportunities for acquiring the information, which is essential for the successful communication of their ideas to the others. When the conferrer already has a complete analysis of the hearer, he can proceed immediately to examine that analysis and determine how his ideas should be presented. This must not be overlooked, if the speaker is to attain the highest success.

When the conferrer and the conferee are well known to each other, there is always a temptation for the conferrer to go into the conference without a definite plan. This danger must be guarded against. It makes no difference what the purpose of the conference may be, experience has shown that the most satisfactory results may be achieved by the conferrer when he goes into the conference with the same preparation he would think necessary, if he were approaching a stranger. Therefore, when the parties to the conference are known to each other, the conferrer should not allow that fact to interfere in any way with his careful adaptation of his message to the conferee, in the light of all the information which the analysis reveals.

When the conferrer and the conferee are strangers, the

problem of analysis is, of course, more difficult. He must then make use of every possible source of information about the hearer. He should use as many of the sources of business facts, discussed in Chapter VII of Part I, as may be necessary to supply the needed information.

When we say that the conferee is a stranger we assume that the conferrer has no information about him, except possibly, his name and occupation. Personal knowledge will not therefore be very productive of information. All of the other sources may be used. The conferrer often seeks, as a first step in his analysis, to find some way of observing the man, without his being made aware of it. This is often accomplished by a visit to the office of the individual, to see someone else on another matter. It may also be accomplished by learning the hour at which he goes out to lunch or home in the evening. Very often the conferrer will take lunch at the place where the conferee is known to lunch. Observation of the man gives the conferrer some idea of the manner of man he is to interview.

The method of experimentation is not as useful in securing information of this kind as some of the others. It may however be used to advantage on certain occasions. The business executive who is looking for someone to promote to a more responsible position in the organization and who lacks sufficient information on which to base his choice, will use this method. He picks out the prospects and gives them certain tasks to perform and judges their fitness on the result. The whole method of psychological testing, which is being rapidly applied to business problems, uses the method of experimentation to determine facts which often cannot be obtained in any other way.

A method which is more often used than experimentation for securing analysis information is the interview. These are of two kinds; with the intended conferee himself and with someone who knows him well and is willing to divulge facts about him. The first of these methods is frequently used by salesmen. They make the pre-approach or the

"preliminary skirmish," largely for the purpose of securing information which can be used in the main conference at a later date.

The method of doing this is illustrated by the following example, as used by an insurance salesman:

SALESMAN: "Are you Mr. Willard?"
WILLARD: "Yes, Sir."
SALESMAN: "I am Mr. Salesman. I have a proposition I want to present to you but I cannot tell you about it today. In fact, I cannot do so intelligently at any time without a little better information. Do you have any children?"
WILLARD: "Yes, three boys and a girl."
SALESMAN: "What are their ages?"
WILLARD: "The boys are two, five, and seven, and the girl is nine months."
SALESMAN: "What is your birth date?"
WILLARD: "August 12, 1890."
SALESMAN: "Is your wife about your age?"
WILLARD: "Her birthday is June 18, 1894."
(Salesman writes the information on Willard's prospect card.)
WILLARD: "If your proposition is life insurance, I am not interested because I have all of the insurance I can carry."
SALESMAN: "That's fine. Are your children, including the baby, named in the beneficiary clause of all your policies?"
WILLARD: "No, and I don't see why they should be. My insurance is payable to my wife."
SALESMAN: "In a lump sum?"
WILLARD: "Yes, certainly. How else should it be?"
SALESMAN: "Well, you don't dump several thousand dollars into her lap while you are living, do you?"
WILLARD: "I should say not."
SALESMAN: "Would you mind telling me how much insurance you carry that is payable in a lump sum to your wife?"
WILLARD: "Five thousand dollars."
SALESMAN: "All right; I'll figure something out and bring it down some day for you to mull over. Good-bye."[1]

The other method of using interviews is just as important and useful. One of the first things many speakers will do, when a conference is impending, is to find someone who knows the intended conferee and who is willing to supply

[1] *What to Say*, by J. B. Duryea, p. 166.

the necessary information. Business men are frequently asked for information about their friends and associates which is to be used for influencing their conduct.

If the friend who can supply the information is not within the reach of a personal call and if the telephone is too expensive or impractical, the speaker can resort to letters. In either interviews or letters the conferrer must indicate the nature of the conference subject, so the most useful information may be secured.

Information about a great many men and women may be obtained through reading. Sometimes a chance occurrence is reported in the newspapers in which the individual concerned is mentioned. When he has achieved some prominence either in his profession or in a secondary interest, there are many other printed sources of information. Information about prominent people may be secured through library card catalogues, the various periodical guides, the encyclopedias, the yearbooks, from advertising and directory organizations, and through *Who's Who in America*. J. B. Duryea in the following account tells how he compiled a list of insurance prospects in San Francisco and secured a limited amount of information about each through reading:

First. I secured the San Francisco list of men worth $50,000 and up from *Boyd's City Dispatch,* 19 Beekman Street, New York City. This list is known as Boyd's list. (A similar list may be obtained for any city or state.) I examined this list and carefully compared it with the city directory, making corrections of occupations and of addresses. In doing this work, I eliminated a number of names for various reasons and I also eliminated all the women on the list.

Second. I made a prospect card for all the names on the corrected list. These cards were cut from paper 3x5 inches in size. The word "Boyd's," with the necessary sign to denote the wealth of the man, was written on the first line at the extreme left-hand top of the card, and the name of the city, San Francisco, on the right-hand side. On the left-hand end of the second line I wrote the name of the prospect and put the residence street address on the right-hand end of the line, placing a small "r" in front of it. The third line contains the occupation under the name and the

business address under the residence address. . . . Upon completing this work I found I had about 2,000 names of wealthy men, with the rating of each.

Third. I then checked the cards with the city directory, marking the names with red pencil in the directory and writing the first name of the wife—when given—in parenthesis, on the first line of the card above the man's name.

Fourth. I next took the San Francisco *Blue Book,* checked the names of the "San Francisco List" and some of the clubs with the directory, marking out all names already obtained from Boyd's list and also eliminating all single men and women.

Fifth. I then made prospect cards of the names thus selected from the *Blue Book* and marked these in red pencil in the directory and added the wife's name and recorded the name of his club or clubs.

Sixth. Next I put the two lists together in alphabetical order in an alphabetical file, and found I now had about 4,000 names of wealthy and prominent men, nearly all of whom I knew were married.

Seventh. In the same way I obtained a list of the members of the Commonwealth Club and worked into my list selected names not already included.

Eighth. I then took a blue pencil and went through the city directory, marking the names of men, not already red-penciled, whose occupations indicated that they were active and possible buyers of insurance. This added another 1,000 names.

Ninth. I then bought from a local advertising agency a list of 3,300 names of men who paid income taxes on a net income of $15,000 and over for 1920. I checked these names with my cards and marked "IT15M" on the upper left corner. After doing this there were about 1,000 of the "Income Tax $15,000" names left. These I put in the alphabetical file, thus making a total of 6,000.[2]

It is plain then that it is possible to secure all of the information necessary for a correct analysis of the conferee by the use of one or more of the methods for finding business facts. The speaker is simply called upon to use his energy and diligence in his search.

---

[2] *How to Solicit,* by J. B. Duryea, pp. 62-64.

THE KIND OF FACTS NEEDED

Reference to Chapters II and III will tell you the kind of information that the analysis should reveal. For each speech situation, the analysis must secure the information which will be of the most aid in influencing the thought and the conduct of the hearer on the specific purpose, which is to be the object of the talk.

Age. The first fact to learn is the age of the hearer. Determine whether you would classify him in the young, old, or middle age groups. His age tells you a great deal about his thought habits and the methods which should be used in influencing his conduct.

Intelligence. Next, determine not only the general level of his intelligence but also the particular type of intelligence in which the hearer excels. Is he esthetic, verbal, mechanical, or social? This will indicate the general field of the hearer's interest and show some of the methods to be used to make the message familiar.

Groups. Then, learn the general nature and character of the groups to which the individual belongs. This shows something of the habits systems which have been built up by his environment. Knowledge of his family, sectional, community, religious, political, economic and social groups, helps to complete the "picture" or the analysis.

The hearer's opinions. This is the first step in the analysis which is directly connected with the specific purpose of the talk. The hearer's opinions about the subject of the talk should be known in advance, so the speaker can prepare to meet them effectively. Not only must opinions about the subject be known but also his opinions about the speaker and the occasion.

First, his opinions about the speaker may, in general, be any one of three. He may know the speaker and have a friendly feeling toward him; he may be antagonistic, or may not have an opinion one way or the other. What the hearer thinks of speaker is of the highest importance in all speaking.

Second, the hearer's opinions about the subject determine to a large extent the selection of the ideas to be presented and the plan of the talk. Failure to make note of this step in analysis is the cause of many speech failures.

Third, the hearer's opinions about the occasion, which is most suitable for the talk, should influence the speaker in the selection of the proper moment for bringing his subject to the attention of the hearer.

Hearer's knowledge of the subject. The state of the hearer's knowledge of the subject should also be known in advance. In making an oral report, for example, the speaker must know how much the hearer knows about the subject. Otherwise he is quite likely to prepare carefully a part of the speech, which turns out in the interview to be unnecessary and must be discarded. The state of the hearer's knowledge of the subject determines to a large extent the selection of the material.

Hearer's activity level. It is not always possible to determine the activity level of the hearer until the speaker is actually in his presence. This is especially true when the hearer is a stranger. When he is a friend or acquaintance the activity level may often be learned in advance, either from the hearer himself or by asking others who have had contacts with him, shortly before the interview.

Is the hearer quick to adopt new ideas? The speaker should know how the hearer is going to regard the subject of his talk. Will he regard it as something new and revolutionary? If he does and is an adult the speaker must prepare to stress the similarity between his proposal and the present system. He must be prepared to minimize the new features and stress the point that it really does not involve a radical departure from the present thought and conduct habits of the hearer. If the hearer is known to be quick to adopt new ideas that fact should cause the speaker to adapt his presentation to meet that mental attitude.

The hearer's wants and interests. From the point of view of persuasive speaking the hearer's wants and interests con-

stitute what is probably the most important information which the conferrer must secure. The speaker must not only know the general wants, common to everyone, but he should know also what one of these is the most impelling for the conferee, at the time of the conference. He should know what the conferee wants more than anything else. When he knows the hearer's specific desires, at the time of the talk, he can plan his presentation to shoot at the bull's-eye of the target. Otherwise his shots may land in one of the outer rings.

If the hearer's most impelling desire, at the time, is to acquire property, show how your proposition will satisfy that want. If it is to have power, show how that want may be satisfied by doing the thing you are asking him to do. If it is to avoid fear, find out what his fears are and then show how your proposal will remove the cause of the fear. To find the hearer's primary want or wants, at the time of the conference, is to find the point where the wedge of interest will penetrate the farthest, provided you are able to show how your proposal will satisfy that want.

Compelling the hearer's attention to his wants. The speaker must determine in advance, as far as he can, the methods he should use to force the hearer's attention to his wants. He must select the exact devices he expects to use to make the vital nature of his proposal apparent to the hearer. He should select the particular means of using the familiar which will bring the subject within the hearer's experience. Then he should decide whether a striking method of approach is necessary and finally select the concrete facts he wishes to introduce. Selection of the facts to be used to compel the hearer's attention to his wants presents a very difficult problem.

In the final chapter of this part of the book we are including the complete record of a conference, with an analysis of it, and we have pointed out in this record, among other things, the methods used to compel the hearer's attention to his wants.

THE SPEAKER'S CONTROL OF EXTERNAL CONDITIONS

Finally, the conditions under which the talk is to be made should be controlled. The conference should be held under conditions which make it possible for the hearer to give his attention to the presentation. He should be comfortable and distractions should be eliminated. Since the conference is usually held in the conferee's office, the conferee can exercise more control over this aspect than can the conferrer. The speaker can often eliminate distractions at the very beginning, by interesting the conferee to such an extent that he does not wish to be interrupted. If the speaker is successful in doing this, the conferee will either take the conference to a place where they will not be disturbed or he will instruct his secretary to tell all callers that he is busy. The writer has often had both of these experiences, when he was the conferrer.

If other matters are so pressing that the conferee cannot postpone consideration of them, until the end of the conference, and he is continually interrupted with telephone and personal calls, effective communication becomes very difficult. It is possible for a man to give his entire attention to only one thing at a time and if he is forced to attend to other things, during the conference, he cannot give 100% of his attention to the conferrer. The conferrer is often better off to refer to the fact that the conferee is busy and ask for an interview at a time when he can give his whole attention. The difficulty is often overcome by inviting the conferee to take lunch with him at a club or hotel.

A PLAN FOR ANALYSIS

As a final guide to the speaker's analysis of the hearer we are including an Analysis Chart. This chart is intended to be used for all kinds of business and professional speeches. It is a general chart applicable to all. When some of the types are applied to a specific problem, additional informa-

tion must be secured besides that we have indicated. An example of a specific case requiring more information than we have indicated here has already been noted in this chapter. It is that of the insurance salesman who must know the amount of insurance already carried by the man and the size and character of his family, before he can work out a program which will meet his needs. Before each speech situation business men will assure themselves of a higher degree of speech success by securing and using the information indicated by the chart and such other information as may be required by the particular type of speech. We must add too that for some particular speech situations all of this information may not be necessary. The speaker should carefully check his presentation with this chart, however, in order to avoid the omission of important facts.

Analysis Chart

- The Speaker's Specific Purpose
- The Conferee's Name
  - His Occupation
  - His Age
  - His Intelligence
    - High
    - Average
    - Low
  - His Aptitudes
    - Esthetic
    - Verbal
    - Mechanical
    - Social
  - His Membership in Groups
    - Family
    - Sectional
    - Community
    - Religious
    - Political
    - Economic
    - Social
  - His Opinions
    - About the Speaker
      - Favorable
      - No Opinion
      - Unfavorable

- About the Subject
  - Strongly Favorable
  - Slightly Favorable
  - Neutral
  - Slightly Opposed
  - Strongly Opposed
- About the Occasion
  - Discussion of Subject Proper
  - Discussion of Subject Improper

His Knowledge of the Subject
- Well Informed
- Partially Informed
- Poorly Informed

His Activity Level
- Is it Normal at the Time Selected for the Interview?
- Is it Depressed or Excited at the Time?

His Slowness or Quickness to Adopt New Ideas
- Quick to Adopt New Ideas
- Slow to Adopt New Ideas

His Wants and Interests
- What Wants are Primary at the Time?
  - To be Healthy
  - To Acquire Property
  - To Have Power
  - To Have a Good Reputation
  - To Have Friends
  - To Avoid Fear
  - To Love and Protect Others
  - To Imitate or to Differ from Others
  - To Have Recreation
  - To Satisfy Tastes

How May His Attention be Compelled to These Wants
- The Vital
- The Familiar
  - Primary Interests
  - Secondary Interests
  - Momentary Interests
- The Striking
- The Concrete

How May the Speaker Control the Conditions of the Talk
- In the Hearer's Office
- In Other Places

SUMMARY

In applying analysis to conferences the first thing the conferrer does is to select the exact statement of his purpose. He then uses all of the sources of business facts to secure information about the hearer; particularly those facts which will help to communicate effectively the particular subject of the conference. He should know the conferee's age, intelligence, membership in groups, his opinions, his knowledge about the subject, his activity level at the time of the conference, his slowness or quickness to adopt new ideas, his wants and interests, the methods of compelling his attention to these wants, and the methods of controlling the external conditions of the talk.

In selecting the information to be used the conferrer should be governed by the Analysis Chart. The chart should be modified in whatever manner may be necessary for the particular speech problem but the conferrer should always check his presentation with the chart, to be certain that no useful facts are omitted.

XX

PLANNING THE CONFERENCE

The conferrer. Instructions. Oral reports. Sales talks. Discussions of policy. Good-will talks. Courtesy talks. Using the sources of business facts. Organizing the talk. Securing the interview. The conferee.

THE CONFERRER

In the preceding chapter we have discussed the first type of information which the speaker must have; that is, information about the conferee. The second type of information he needs, if his speaking is to be effective, is about the subject. He must know the subject of the talk thoroughly, if he is to attain the highest success. Lack of information about the subject is probably the most important cause of speech failures. Let us consider the types of business speech and briefly indicate how the lack of complete information, at the time of the speech situation, often leads to failure.

Instructions. It is very common for executives to issue instructions, without having all of the facts before them. Afterward they find that had they known all of the facts, the orders would either have been modified or not issued at all.

Oral reports. A report on the operation of a factory in another city is made. It recommends a change in the manufacturing equipment used. It contains every important fact, except that the new equipment requires specially trained workmen to operate it. Acting on the report, the machinery is bought and then it is discovered that workmen must be brought in from another city at an unexpected expense.

The following case is also typical of hundreds of oral reports made each day. The manager of one of the departments in a large store was making a report to the president on the state of affairs in his department. The purpose of

the report was to show the president that his department was making more money than similar departments, in other stores of the same size. He pointed out to the president that in a large number of stores, reported in a recent article in a professional journal, the average mark-up was 28%. His own department was, at the time, operating on a mark-up of 29%. He therefore thought that his department was making more than the average. He, however, overlooked two important facts. In the first place, the stores reported in the article added transportation charges to the original cost before figuring the mark-up, while their store figured the mark-up from the cost price. In the second place, he did not know that these stores made extra charges for alterations, which boosted their earnings, while in their store and in the community, it long had been the custom to make no charges for alterations. These two important facts were essential for the success of the report. Each of them added approximately 2% to operating expenses and indicated that in order to earn the average of the other stores his department should be making a mark-up of 33%. This indicated that the department was really 3% below the average rather than 1% above.

When making an oral report the speaker must be familiar with every fact bearing on the subject. To make the report, without having all of the facts, is to decrease one's influence rather than increase it. The man who frequently meets defeat, because he does not have all of the facts before him, soon finds that he is not highly regarded by his associates.

Sales talks. The writer once knew a coal salesman who was selling wholesale lots from mines in West Virginia and Kentucky. He was sent out on the road by a manager who did not think it worth while to give him some help in learning about the particular brands of coal he was trying to market. The salesman knew the names of the mines, from which the coal was obtained, and he knew the average analysis. This was practically the only information he had, with which to sell in a highly competitive market. The result was that

time and time again he was not able to answer simple questions about his product.

In one case an industrial organization had bought one car, to try out. They found that the burning surface of the coal coked and slowed up the fire. The result was that they could not get enough heat from the coal to keep up steam. It happened that the coal was hotter than many other brands but required a special process of handling and firing in order to give satisfactory heat. The salesman did not know this process and was not able to show the fireman how to handle it and he lost all future sales.

In buying clothes the writer has often asked detailed questions about the cloth and workmanship. Rarely has he found a salesman who could give all of the information desired. Yet complete information about the product, including the process of manufacture, is of the highest importance in making sales. Go into almost any retail store during the slack hours and you will usually find many clerks talking to each other or sitting down when they could be learning all the facts about their products, so as to be ready to handle customers effectively, when they come in. Ask any of these clerks about any of the articles they are selling and rarely will you find one who can tell you all you want to know. Successful salesmen must know their products.

Discussions of policy. Questions of policy are continually coming up in every business organization. The executives meet to determine their manufacturing and marketing policies. Nowhere is complete information more important than here, and yet every executive knows how often it is lacking. The executive who has a dominant personality is frequently able to secure the adoption of his proposals when they are not based on a knowledge of all of the facts. Policies frequently fail to accomplish the results promised, and all too often it is discovered that had all of the facts been known in the first place, the policy would not have been adopted.

The recent experience of a canning factory is evidence of

this. Before the last canning season the question had come up in one of the conferences of executives as to whether or not they should buy another cherry pitter, to hold in reserve in case the cherry pitter then in use should break down. The general manager opposed the purchase on the ground that they did not need it. He said that the old cherry pitter had never given them any trouble and there was no reason to believe that it would break down during the present season. It had been checked recently by a mechanic from the factory and they could secure his services in case of trouble. The foreman urged the purchase on the ground that the pitter in use was old and that a serious breakdown might occur at any time, involving heavy loss to the organization. He pointed out that the loss of only a few hours, during the canning season, would make it difficult for them to make a profit. The new pitter was not bought and during the season the old one broke down and could not be repaired for a day. The result was a loss of over a thousand dollars in spoiled fruit and wages. Had the foreman made a careful examination of the machine and been able to give a complete report on its weaknesses, he might have been able to carry his point. He, at least, would have been able to secure appreciation of the problem involved.

Good-will talks. The public relations departments of many of our great businesses are often called upon to supply good-will speakers. A common fault is to present their subjects in technical language. They frequently do not take the trouble to learn those facts in which their audiences are interested and can understand.

Introduction, acceptance, and welcome talks. These often fail because the speaker lacks information. The writer once heard a prominent advertising man introduced at a meeting of advertising men in a very plain and perfunctory manner. Had the chairman taken the trouble to learn the facts, he would have been able to make the introduction a real help to the speaker. At it was the speaker's task was harder.

The same thing is true of acceptance and welcome talks. The speaker must have complete information if his talk is to be effective.

USING THE SOURCES OF BUSINESS FACTS

To secure all of the facts, necessary to know, about the subjects of conferences, the conferrer should use all, or as many as may be necessary, of the sources of business facts as explained in Chapter VII. First, determine what personal knowledge can supply. Then, observe and experiment. Write to others for information. Interview others and finally, read everything you can find on the subject. Know your subject, for it is only when your information is complete that you can inform and persuade others successfully. Only when you speak with authority, will your speech accomplish the result you want to accomplish.

Having done this, the speaker must select from all of his information those facts which will most quickly and easily enable him to attain his goal. He selects those facts which will help to communicate his ideas.

ORGANIZING THE TALK

Then the speaker must determine the order of ideas and the illustrative material to be used in making them familiar. The whole conference should be completely planned in advance. Very often conference speakers do not appreciate the importance of the problem and begin speaking without a definite plan. They depend upon the inspiration of the moment or some remark of the conferee to give them a clue to the proper method of procedure. Experience shows that conferences planned after the speaker is in the presence of the hearer are rarely as successful as conferences planned beforehand. The speaker should refer to the particular chapter of Part II, dealing with his type of speech, and to Chapter V for directions for planning the presentation.

SECURING THE INTERVIEW

Having made complete preparation for the conference, the conferrer must now secure the interview with the conferee. This is a part of his preparation. Interviews may be secured by writing, or telephoning and making an appointment, or by calling at the man's office and taking a chance that he will see him.

The last of these methods is very wasteful of the conferrer's time. The first is much more satisfactory. When the conferee is a friend there is usually little difficulty in securing the interview. When he is a stranger the conferrer must show in his letter or his telephone call that he has something to say, of benefit to the conferee. He should connect his subject with the primary wants of the conferee.

THE CONFEREE

In general, it may be said that the conferee prepares for the conference in much the same way that the conferrer prepares. He tries to learn all he can about the speaker, his proposition, and the people he represents. In acquiring this information he uses all of the sources suggested for the conferrer.

For important conferences the conferee should have full and complete information, so he will be able to test the statements made by the conferrer. He must be able to bring all of his own information to bear as well as make use of that presented by the conferrer, in order to arrive at a correct decision. This is especially true of conferences on policy, in the internal organization of a business.

When the conferences are relatively unimportant or when the conferee has so many people to see that he does not have the time to study each particular case, he must depend on the conference itself to furnish a large part of the information he wants.

It must be noted, however, that this method is just as risky

from the point of view of the conferee as it is for the conferrer. The most satisfactory results are achieved when he is fully informed.

SUMMARY

Before the conferrer can plan the conference he must have complete information about the subject in addition to a complete analysis of the conferee. Experience shows that in all types of business speech the great majority of failures are due to a lack of information.

Secure information by using the sources of business facts. These sources are indicated in the last chapter of Part I.

When the talk has been planned the interview may be secured. This is accomplished by the use of letters and the telephone or by going to the man's office and taking a chance. Securing the interview in advance is the most satisfactory method.

The conferee prepares for the conference in the same way that the conferrer prepares. He should have complete information about the speaker, and the subject of the conference.

XXI

THE CONFERRER'S CONDUCT OF THE CONFERENCE

GENERAL CONSIDERATIONS

Use of the pre-approach. The main conference. Greeting the conferee. Opening the conference. Securing effortless attention. Using his secondary and momentary interests. The use of questions. Observe your hearer. Using common ground or points of agreement. The conferrer's manner of speaking. Clear thinking. Self-confidence. Tact. Enthusiasm. The fundamental qualities of speech. Sense of communication. Sincerity. Animation. The use of the voice. The use of humor. Handling the discourteous conferee. Effective use of silence.

We have discussed both the conferrer's and the conferee's preparation for the conference. The conferrer is now ready to open it. Throughout his whole presentation he makes use of all he has learned about the subject and the hearer.

USE OF THE PRE-APPROACH

The pre-approach is a preliminary conference. Its purpose is to complete those parts of the analysis which are not known to the speaker. It is used to secure information which the speaker has not been able to secure elsewhere and which will help him in adapting his ideas.

It must be remembered, of course, that in general the pre-approach should not be used to acquire all of the necessary information. The speaker should learn all that he can from other sources and use this method when there is no other way. To depend on the pre-approach for all our information about the hearer is frequently to label ourselves as incompetent and to destroy any confidence the hearer may have in us. *Use the pre-approach to complete the hearer's analysis for all necessary facts which cannot be obtained elsewhere.*

THE MAIN CONFERENCE

We are now ready to consider the main conference. The speaker has secured all of the information about the hearer's personality, opinions, and wants, which he deems necessary for the successful presentation of his subject. He has carefully prepared his presentation and has adjusted it to all of the facts he has learned about the hearer in his analysis. He is ready to "go to the mat." We shall consider his presentation of his subject in the main conference under the following headings: *Greeting the Conferee, Opening the Conference, Securing Effortless Attention, Using His Secondary and Momentary Interests, Using Questions, Using Common Ground, Observe Your Hearer, Conferrer's Manner of Speaking, Fundamental Qualities of Speech, Use of Humor, Handling the Discourteous Conferee, Use of Silence.* The reader will note that practically all of the suggestions given here for the conduct of the main conference are equally applicable to the pre-approach and should be used there as well.

GREETING THE CONFEREE

It often happens that the speaker's greeting of the conferee, influences the whole conference and may assist the speaker or may erect bars to getting the favorable attention of the hearer. It is therefore very important that the conferrer "get off on the right foot." He must make a favorable impression from the very beginning or the problem of influencing the thought and conduct of the hearer becomes more difficult.

The first important thing to be remembered is that the conferrer's form of greeting should be adapted to the hearer. Meredith Nicholson, a prominent American author, recently declared that the "old American handshake has been greatly overdone." He decried the type of person who in greeting, "paws all over you and thumps your back painfully." In

elaborating upon this theme he said, "The salesman who comes to you with outstretched hand, without you taking the initiative, is a little bit presumptuous. He should wait for you to indicate how you desire to be greeted, unless your acquaintance is of long standing." This statement presents the core of the matter. A good plan to follow is to allow the conferee to take the initiative and then the conferrer can adapt his own greeting to that. He should wait for the conferee to extend his hand. This is especially important when the parties to the conference are not intimate friends or associates.

When the parties are intimate friends it is the custom to make the greeting in an informal, but usually not effusive, manner unless there is some particular reason for expressing unusual pleasure. Friends will usually call each other by their first names. When one party to the conference is in authority over the other he may use the other's first name, while he may be addressed more formally as mister. Executives frequently do not like what they regard as undue familiarity from their subordinates. They often prefer a formal greeting although some, who will not permit an informal greeting, will allow the use of a middle ground; as the use of the first two initials. Reference to superiors as J. W. or V. A. is quite common in the business world. The important thing to remember is that even when you know the conferee well you should use the form of greeting preferred by him. To use any other form frequently arouses antagonism, which not only makes the speaker's immediate speech problem more difficult but all succeeding ones as well, until the unfavorable reaction is removed.

OPENING THE CONFERENCE

After the greeting, the conference must be opened. The conferrer must secure the attention of the conferee if he is to accomplish his purpose. There are a number of ways in which this may be accomplished. Before indicating some of

the more important and useful methods let us briefly refer again to the kinds of attention and indicate the character of the attention which the conferrer wants. You will recall that in Chapter III of Part I we discussed voluntary, involuntary and effortless attention. For the practical purposes of the conference we are concerned with only two; voluntary and effortless. Voluntary attention is that which we give through an effort of the will, while effortless attention does not involve the use of the will, but follows naturally from interest. Every conference speaker should strive to secure the effortless attention of his conferee. Yet many do not do this because they lack an appreciation of the problem or because they do not know how to go about it.

Lack of appreciation of the problem is often found when the parties are friends; the conferee hesitates to indicate a lack of interest in the conferrer's ideas. He does not wish to appear discourteous and therefore he listens through an effort of the will. He gives his voluntary attention. This fault is very prevalent in the speaking done by the internal organization of a business. A man confers with his fellow executive and he knows that there is no particular problem involved in securing attention because the conferee will listen, simply because the conferrer is a friend or associate. In cases of this kind it often happens that the conferrer will not take the trouble to secure a complete analysis. Inefficient speaking results. Time and energy is wasted. Whenever the conferrer goes into a conference with an associate without carefully planning the means of interesting him in his ideas, from the very beginning of the conference, the time of the conference must usually be extended in order to permit the conferrer to do what he should have done beforehand; i. e. to complete his analysis and to adapt his ideas to the interests of the conferee. It must also be remembered that planning the conference while actually in the presence of the conferee is very unsatisfactory, for experience shows that conferences planned on the "spur of the moment" usually fail to accomplish all that the conferrer

hoped to accomplish. The football quarterback who plans his whole campaign after he takes the field with his team has many defeats to explain. It is true that a good quarterback will adjust his tactics to meet new situations as they develop but he places greatest dependence on the carefully worked-out plans, decided on in consultation with the coaches. The successful speaker must also be able to adjust his presentation to meet the speech situations created by the conferee, but he too must depend on a carefully prepared presentation. To do otherwise is to court defeat. Therefore when the parties to the conference are friends, the conferrer should give just as much time and thought to the preparation of his presentation as when they are strangers. When the conferrer's presentation is not sufficiently interesting to the conferee for him to give his effortless attention he must give his voluntary attention if he is to attend at all.

Voluntary attention, as has already been pointed out, is a great waster of time and energy and it is almost never as successful in the cold, objective, measure of results achieved, as effortless attention. The speaker who is able only to secure the voluntary attention of his conferee, not only makes his immediate task more difficult but creates certain bad impressions about himself, in the mind of the conferee, which carry over into other conferences and make his other speech problems harder to conclude successfully.

Since effortless attention is the kind necessary for the highest effectiveness in all speech situations the question naturally arises as to how this attention may be secured. We shall try to indicate how this may be accomplished.

SECURING EFFORTLESS ATTENTION

The most common and at the same time the most successful method of securing effortless attention is by an *immediate statement of purpose.* To come to the point quickly is usually the wish of the busy business man. As a means of securing effortless attention, this method is espe-

cially useful in the speech of the internal organization of a business. It is not necessary to win good will by using the preliminaries sometimes necessary when the parties are strangers. Come to the point quickly and state why you asked for the conference, in the opening sentence. It is often much more satisfactory to use the same method when the parties are strangers. Many men do not like to waste time in what, for the purpose of the conference, is idle talk.

When the conferrer adopts this method his first sentence or two should not only state the purpose of the conference, but should be so worded as to connect the subject of the conference, at once, with the wants of the hearer. When the writer was once marketing an educational service, he completed the analysis of one conferee, who was the store manager of a department store, by a talk with the general manager. The general manager told him that this man needed the service and that he personally would be very much pleased if he enrolled. When the store manager was approached the writer, after greeting him, opened the conference in this manner: "Mr. Ritter, the general manager, Mr. Wagner, just told me that you would be interested in the educational service I am going to explain to you and he said that he would be pleased if you would enroll." This opening sentence not only indicated the nature of the conference but it pointed out that the subject was intimately connected with the conferee's wants. The chief wants referred to were reputation and power, with the former undoubtedly the most impelling. He wanted to retain the good will and respect of the general manager and here was an opportunity for doing something he wished done. He also wanted to increase his own influence and power in the organization and here was an opportunity for doing it. The writer then explained the service and showed how it would do all that was claimed for it, and the man's enrollment was secured. Had the writer simply said, "Mr. Ritter, I want to explain a very valuable educational service to you," he would have made an immediate statement of purpose, but the

statement contains no reference to the conferee's wants and the chances are that the man's effortless attention would not have been secured. From the point of view of time and energy saved and the results achieved, the immediate statement of purpose, when it is directly connected with the conferee's wants, is the most common and efficient opening.

USING HIS SECONDARY, MOMENTARY INTERESTS

Besides the immediate statement of purpose, the conference may also be opened by reference to the secondary or momentary interests of the hearer. This method is often used, when the parties to the conference are strangers and may occasionally be used when they are friends. From the point of view of the conferrer it serves two purposes: first, it gives the conferrer an opportunity to size up the conferee, and second, it provides an opportunity for gaining his good will and respect before he presents the subject of the conference.

This method is frequently used when the conferrer for any reason has not been able to complete his analysis. For example, if he does not know the age and the social or economic status of the conferee this preliminary talk gives him an opportunity to make guesses. He cannot secure accurate information in this way. All that he can do is to observe and to estimate. This method of completing analysis should therefore never be used, except in emergencies. Nevertheless this preliminary sizing up is often quite valuable and may make certain changes in the prepared presentation necessary. It is often useful, even when the analysis is complete, for it gives an opportunity to get on friendly terms with the hearer. It assists the speaker to be at his ease and poised when he comes to the main part of the conference.

The second use of the indirect opening is probably the more important, in most cases. It is used by the conferrer in the conference we have analyzed in the last chapter.

When the speaker skillfully handles his opening on a secondary or momentary interest, he has an opportunity to win the conferee's confidence and respect. This has a tendency to carry over into the main part of the conference and makes the speaker's task less difficult. When this type of opening is not skillfully handled, the opposite reaction will inevitably follow and the speaker's task in the main presentation will be more difficult. Many speakers fail just at this point. Many would be far better off, as far as the result of the conference is concerned, which after all is the important thing to be considered, if they would omit all attempts to open on secondary and momentary interests and would begin with an immediate statement of purpose.

To open a conference on a secondary or momentary interest requires great skill, if the speaker is to be effective. He must find an unobtrusive way of bringing the matter to the conferee's attention. There must be some reason, which appears to be adequate to the hearer, for bringing it up. It must not be obviously "dragged in." The conferrer, in general, has two ways of creating opportunities for introducing his talk on a momentary or secondary interest; he may either refer to information acquired in his analysis or he may by a quick survey of the conferee's desk and office, find a timely subject.

As an example of the first of these methods, a minister called on the writer yesterday, in reference to some church work. In his opening remarks he referred to the fact that the writer's brother is a member of his church. I remarked that my brother was at the present time on a long automobile pleasure trip in the far west, and then for several minutes we talked about the pleasures of travel, after which we talked of church problems: the purpose of the conference. This same method is used often in business. The conferrer may open by saying, "Your friend, Mr. Jones, gave me your name and said that you would be interested in my proposition." This type of opening frequently leads the conferee to make a comment or to ask a question about Mr. Jones,

which gives the conferrer a chance to continue talking about a secondary or momentary interest. If it does not have that result the conferrer can then either state his purpose or try again to open the conference on a secondary or momentary interest by making another statement about Mr. Jones. He might say, "Mr. Jones has been doing some very interesting work. I think that he ought to write up and publish his results." Should this fail to provoke a comment or a question he may continue, "He has found out that in his business the advertising expenditure may be cut in two without causing a falling off in sales. That is rather surprising, isn't it?" By this use of a direct question he can usually start the conferee to talking and then when he feels that he has secured the good will which he desires, he can launch into his presentation.

The second method of opening on a secondary or momentary interest is more difficult to use, because it cannot be planned in advance and depends for its success on the quickness with which the conferrer is able to survey the conferee's environment. It requires quick thinking and adjustment. It may sometimes be used by a reference to a remark made by the man's secretary. If the secretary, for example, has said that the conferee is very busy today, because he is clearing up his work in preparation for going on his vacation, a reference to that may make it possible to open with a brief discussion of the pleasures of vacationing. It may also be used when the conferrer observes that a particular thing is engaging the conferee's attention at the time. If the conferee is reading the morning paper a reference to an outstanding occurrence or event, described there, will often provide the opening desired.

It may also be used when the conferrer observes something of interest in the room. While the writer was once waiting to see a man, he noticed the picture of a prominent business man hanging above the conferee's desk. He opened the conference by a reference to that man and his work and it led to an extended discussion, before the main part of the

conference. The conferrer in the conference we have analyzed in the last chapter of the book made use of this very method when he observed that the conferee had some antique furniture in his office, by expressing great interest in it.

The proper opening of the conference is, therefore, most important in determining its result. To get started right is to win the good will and the respect of the conferee. The speaker should decide which of these two methods of opening will best serve his purpose. If he thinks that an immediate statement of purpose will at once secure effortless attention, that is the method he should use. If, on the other hand, he believes that he would be better off to start with a discussion of a secondary or momentary interest, he should use that method. If he uses the latter, he should plan the opening in advance, if it is possible to do so. If he cannot plan it in advance, because of a lack of information, he must then depend upon seizing upon a chance occurrence in obtaining the interview or something inside the man's office to furnish the clue he needs. He should always be ready to open with an immediate statement of his purpose, if no opportunity presents itself for opening on a secondary or momentary interest.

If he uses the immediate statement of purpose, he must make the opening sentence not only state his purpose but, by his choice of words, show how his purpose is connected directly with the hearer's wants. It should be remembered too, that when the indirect method is used, the main part of the conference should be opened by a statement of purpose which is connected directly with the conferee's wants, just as in the direct method. And, of course, the wants appealed to, in every opening statement of purpose, should be those we have classed as primary.

To show that your ideas will satisfy the one thing the conferee desires more than anything else in the world, at the time of the talk, is to give the statement much greater impelling power.

THE USE OF QUESTIONS

Questions are used for two chief purposes: to secure information and to secure yes-responses. When the first of these is the purpose of the question, it may be framed in any manner which will secure the desired information. Sometimes it is better to word the question indirectly rather than directly. This should be done when the conferee might hesitate about answering the direct question. Insurance salesmen often find that the real reason for not wanting to buy insurance, at the particular time of the conference, is a lack of funds. The conferee may simply say that he is not interested now and that would probably be his answer to a direct question. But if the salesman asks, "Would it be more suitable to you, if we make the fee payable on the 30th rather than today (15th)?" he will usually get an answer which tells exactly what he wants to know. The direct question should be used, when the conferrer is certain that the conferee has no reason for hesitating about giving the information. When he thinks the conferee may hesitate he should use the indirect form.

The second use of questions, that is, to secure yes-responses, is essential to all persuasive speaking. You will recall that in the chapter on "Special Speech Devices" we discussed all of the principal methods of inducing yes-responses. These are through the speaker's personality, the external speech conditions, and directly by the use of words. We are concerned here with this last means of arousing yes-responses. They are most often obtained through the use of words, by asking questions.

The canvasser rings the doorbell. The door is opened by a suspicious lady-of-the-house. The canvasser lifts his hat. "Would you like to buy an illustrated History of the World?" he asks. "No!" And the door slams.

A "No" response is a most difficult handicap to overcome. When a person has said "No," all of his pride of personality demands that he remain consistent with himself. He may later feel that the "No" was ill advised; nevertheless there is his

precious pride to consider! Having once said a thing he must stick to it.

Hence it is of the very greatest importance that we start a person in the affirmative direction. A wiser canvasser rings the doorbell. An equally suspicious lady-of-the-house opens. The canvasser lifts his hat. "This is Mrs. Armstrong?"

Scowlingly—"Yes."

"I understand, Mrs. Armstrong, that you have several children in school."

Suspiciously—"Yes."

"And of course they have much home work to do?"

Almost with a sigh—"Yes."

"That always requires a good deal of work with reference books, doesn't it—hunting things up, and so on? And of course we don't want our children running out to the library every night . . . better for them to have all these materials at home." etc., etc.

We do not guarantee the sale. But that second canvasser is destined to go far! He has captured the secret of getting, at the outset, a number of "yes-responses." He has thereby set the psychological processes of his listener moving in the affirmative direction.

The psychological patterns here are quite clear. When a person says "No" and really means it, he is doing far more than saying a word of two letters. His entire organism—glandular, nervous, muscular—gathers itself together into a condition of rejection. There is, usually in minute but sometimes in observable degree, a physical withdrawal, or readiness for withdrawal. The whole neuromuscular system, in short, sets itself on guard against the acceptance. Where, on the contrary, a person says "Yes," none of the withdrawing activities take place. The organism is in a forward-moving, accepting, open attitude. Hence the more "Yesses" we can, at the very outset, induce, the more likely we are to succeed in capturing attention for our ultimate proposal.[1]

We should strive to arouse "Yes" responses because they help to achieve the purpose of the speech. When, at the outset, the speaker asks questions which lead to affirmative answers, he is building up a chain of "Yes" responses which get the hearer into the habit of saying "Yes." When this habit has been formed, it becomes very difficult for the hearer to say "No," when the conferrer comes to that part

[1] *Influencing Human Behavior*, by H. A. Overstreet, pp. 16-18.

of the speech, where he asks for agreement or action. On the other hand, if the speaker is so unfortunate as to bring about a series of "No" responses at the beginning of his talk, his chances of securing a "Yes" at the crucial moment of the talk become fewer with each succeeding "No." Get your hearer into the habit of agreeing with you and you make success more certain.

OBSERVE YOUR HEARER

There is just one way for the conferrer to find out how his ideas are being received by the conferee; that is by carefully observing what he says and does. The inexperienced conferrer often makes the mistake of sticking too closely to his prepared presentation and ignoring the conferee's reaction. Too often he fails to observe the physical, vocal, and verbal signs, which indicate what the conferee is thinking. *No instruction in conference speaking is more important than to carefully observe your conferee.* While the conference is progressing, observation is the only way the conferrer has of finding out how his ideas are being received. To fail to observe and to adjust the presentation to what is observed is, usually, to court defeat.

Watch your hearer. This does not mean that the conferrer should stare and never shift his eyes. Far from it. It means that he should be constantly on the lookout for signs which tend to indicate the conferee's reaction. It is quite possible to observe these signs without "staring the conferee out of countenance." The hearer is constantly making responses to what the conferrer says. Many of these are orally expressed. Others are not orally expressed but are indicated by changing facial expression and movements of the body. The trained conferrer should be able to detect these signs and make use of them.

If the conferee makes a number of restless movements and indicates by his general physical attitude that he would like to terminate the conference, he has told you that he is

not interested just as plainly as if he were to say orally, "I am not interested." When this happens the speaker knows that he has failed to find the hearer's primary want or wants and to connect his ideas directly with them. Detecting signs of interest, or lack of interest, whenever they appear, is one of the first things the conferrer must learn to do.

Interest is usually indicated by an alert physical attitude. When the conferee is interested he looks at the speaker and listens carefully for every word. Physically, the conferee assumes an attitude of muscular tenseness, usually lacking when he is not interested. He sits in a more erect position and is alert. When the conferrer is able to hold the interested attention of the conferee throughout, his problem becomes one of detecting the point of greatest interest, for it is when he has detected the point of greatest interest that he should close the conference and secure the acceptance or action he desires. This is discussed in detail in the chapter on "Closing the Conference."

It must be mentioned too that physical signs are frequently the only ones indicating a lack of understanding. For example, it often happens that when an executive is giving instructions to a subordinate and the subordinate does not understand, he will hesitate to say so directly for one of two reasons; he knows that his failure to understand either shows that his superior is an ineffective speaker or it indicates that he is slow of understanding. In the first case the conferee may often hesitate to say he doesn't understand, orally, because of a feeling that he is being discourteous. In the second he hesitates because he does not wish to get the reputation of being slow-witted. In cases of this kind, the only way the speaker has of knowing whether he is understood is by careful observation. If he notices a perplexed expression on the conferee's face, he knows that it is not clear. Sometimes he may ask directly whether or not he understands. Then if the conferee hesitates or if his answer is not expressed positively, he knows that further explanation is necessary.

So much for the conferrer's use of his eyes. Let us now consider the use of his ears in observation. Two sets of impressions are received through the ear. The first is the meaning contained in the actual words uttered by the conferee and the second is the tone in which the words are spoken. Both are highly important, and must be observed. The tone in which the words are spoken often communicates quite as much as the words themselves and frequently, as your own personal experience will testify, it communicates more. For example, using the problem of giving instructions discussed in the preceding paragraph, if in reply to a question designed to ascertain his understanding, the conferee says, "Yes, I understand" with "Yes" uttered with a rising inflection and a distinct pause before the "I understand," also spoken with a rising inflection, the tone communicates just the opposite thing, that the words are intended to communicate. If, however, he says, "Yes, I understand," uttering the "Yes" with a positive downward inflection, and little pause between the "Yes" and the "I understand," also with a downward inflection, the tone communicates exactly the same idea as the words. By carefully observing the tone in which the conferee speaks, as well as his physical manner, the conferrer can learn a great deal about how his ideas are being received. It is therefore necessary for the conferrer to observe, not only the conferee's words but also the tone in which they are uttered.

When the speaker by the use of his eyes and his ears detects a lack of interest or a lack of understanding he must, of course, immediately amplify his remarks to bring them within the hearer's experience. In other words, he must make his ideas familiar. Lack of interest is usually due to the speaker's failure to talk about the subject in terms of the primary interests and the wants of the hearer. When he detects a lack of interest he should at once show how his ideas are vitally concerned with the primary interest of the conferee and how they will satisfy his wants.

When the conferrer detects interest he must find the points

of greatest interest and attempt to close the conference successfully at those points.

Do not fail to use your eyes and ears to find out how your ideas are being received and then make use of what you observe, to assist you to conclude successfully.

USING COMMON GROUNDS OR POINTS OF AGREEMENT

The points of agreement in an argument are just as important as the points of disagreement. There are four definite uses to which they may be put. First, they may be used when the argument becomes too heated. Of course, you and I always keep our tempers in an argument. However, we have learned from experience that our opponents are not always so considerate. They sometimes become angry.

Under such circumstances the skillful arguer gets back to some point of agreement with his opponent. He says, "Well, we are both striving for the same end," or "Now, of course, we both want to do the right thing," or "At least we agree that . . . ," and states some point of agreement.

Try out this method the next time you find yourself in an argument in which your opponent has a tendency to become hot-tempered. Often he swallows the bait, hook, line, sinker and all, simply because you have turned his thoughts into a channel in which he sees that you have something in common.

The second situation under which points of agreement should be used is when the arguer needs time to collect his wits for a fresh attack upon his opponent's position. We do not like to admit that our opponent is ever more skillful in argument than we are; but we are all aware of the fact that sometimes we are apparently beaten. Now, observation shows that men are prone to do one of two things when cornered in an argument,—they either yield to an opponent or they become very angry about the whole situation. Both of these attitudes are very foolish. We assume that no one enters into an argument without considering his ground thoroughly. Therefore, how foolish it is to quit, merely because it seems for the moment that the argument is lost. It is even greater folly to lose one's temper during an argument, for to do so inhibits those mental processes which are absolutely essential to the exercise of tact and skill.

Therefore, the next time you find yourself cornered in an argument be sure to bring out some points of agreement with your opponent and get him to talk about them. While he talks,

you think. Success in argument goes not to the one who talks the most but to the one who thinks clearly and makes use of all of the devices of argument.

The third use to which points of agreement may be put, is to lead an opponent onto a new line of thought. Sometimes the arguer wishes to change the subject. This may be done more easily if the points of severe contention are dropped for the moment and some points of agreement are allowed to take their place. Then, when you are sure that the mind of your opponent is fastened on these points of agreement, you may introduce your new subject with success.

The fourth use of common ground is to terminate an argument in a friendly way. Actual tests show that when two parties to a controversy leave the discussion on some "sore spot" in the argument, it grows in their minds and they become more widely separated as time goes on. Actual tests also show that when the discussion ends on some point of agreement, both parties are in a better frame of mind to attack the problem at the next opportunity. If possible, never permit your opponent to leave you on a point of disagreement. Tact and skill demand that every discussion of any disputed matter, even where no agreement is reached, should end on some point of common ground.[1]

THE CONFERRER'S MANNER OF SPEAKING

The reader will recall that in the first chapter of Part I we stated that training in effective speaking aided in the development of certain qualities of personality which are necessary for success in any kind of work. These qualities are self-confidence, clear thinking, tact, and enthusiasm. These are the qualities the conferrer must use, if he is to succeed.

Self-confidence. When the conferrer starts the interview, self-confidence is assured by the possession of complete knowledge of the subject of the talk, by a complete analysis of the conferee and by an application of the principles of effective speaking, as found in this book, to the speech problem. As we have pointed out, it is also, in part, built up by

[1] Quoted from Victor Alvin Ketcham's lectures on *Speech Efficiency, Persuasive Power, Tact and Skill in Argument, Extempore Speaking,* and *The Public Address.*

the judicious use of self-suggestions. When the speaker goes into the conference he must have full and complete confidence in his ability to influence the conduct and the thought of the hearer in the way he desires. This attitude of self-confidence must be maintained throughout the whole interview and the conferee's attitude or language must not be permitted to diminish it. The speaker who has complete confidence in his proposition and in his ability has a very distinct advantage over the speaker who lacks it. Confidence leads to convincing presentation, while lack of it leads to a nervous, unconvincing talk.

Confidence leads to the development of ease and poise which are indispensable assets to any business or professional man or woman. Be at ease in the presence of your hearer and you make him respect you. Be well poised and unusual and unexpected arguments and facts will not upset you. If poise is not habitual, however, the unexpected will often operate as a distressing factor.

Clear thinking. Clear thinking is essential to the clear, forcible expression of our ideas. This seems too obvious to mention, but it is surprising to find how many people fail to have their ideas clearly in mind while they are speaking. The speaker cannot expect his hearer to understand and appreciate ideas, not clear to him at the moment of utterance. It does not matter how well the speaker may have understood the ideas when he prepared his presentation. The important thing is that while he is talking to the conferee he must understand them clearly. Failure clearly to understand them leads to obscure use of words and expressions. On the other hand, clear understanding leads to clear, forcible expression. This is true of not only the words used by speaker but also his manner of expressing them.

The writer is deeply interested in one of our great national social and economic movements, in the interests of which he has lectured in practically all parts of one of our great states, visiting almost every large and small community. Before each audience he presents essentially the same ideas, adapted,

of course, to the particular needs of each. Before each speech he has made it a practice to spend from a half hour to an hour going over the speech, thinking intently about the ideas and the exact words to be used in their convincing expression. This period of recall and study has paid large dividends in the objective results achieved. It stimulated the speaker's thought processes and made it possible for him to think clearly in the speech itself. The same process is followed by all successful lecturers and it makes no difference how often the lecture may have been delivered.

Victor Alvin Ketcham has given his intensely interesting lectures on "Effective Speaking in Business" hundreds of times and yet before each lecture he goes through the process just described. He takes the manuscript of the lecture and thoughtfully reads it through from beginning to end. He does not have to do this to learn the ideas, for they are well known to him, but to stimulate his thought processes so he will be thinking clearly when he is actually speaking.

Every conferrer can follow no better rule than to give whatever time may be necessary to "getting himself into character," just before the speech situation. And this is a rule to follow regardless of how many times he has presented the same ideas to other conferees.

The story is told of a real estate salesman who not only prepares for his conferences in this way, but who makes doubly sure of success by being in top-notch physical condition at the time of the conference. He tries to make all of his important appointments at four in the afternoon. After lunch he goes home, takes off all of his clothes and goes to bed, to sleep if he can, but if he cannot sleep, he rests. About three o'clock he gets up, takes a bath, puts on clean linen, and carefully goes over the ideas he wishes to present, on his way to the conference. He does it for the sole reason to be able to think clearly, so he will not be tired and worn out, at the time of the conference.

Be prepared, both physically and mentally, to think clearly about your subject at the time of the conference and

the common experience of thinking, afterward, of a lot of things you ought to have said but didn't, will be more and more infrequent.

Tact. The third quality of personality, developed by training and experience in conferences, is tact. As we have already pointed out (Chapter I, Part I) tact is sympathy and understanding of the other man's point of view. It probably would be more accurate to say that it results from a sympathy and understanding of the other man's point of view and influences both the speaker's ideas and his manner of presenting them. The tactful speaker strives to understand the conferee and his problems. In his speech, he recognizes the conferee's opinions and prejudices. The tactful speaker rarely tries to master the conferee by directly opposing his views. He usually can best exercise tact by agreeing with him, although there are times when he can disagree, if he can do it without arousing antagonism. And this of course means using tact.

The following brief account of a retail sale indicates the use of tact:

I was immediately approached by this very nice salesgirl.

SALESPERSON: "Is there something you would like?"

CUSTOMER: "Yes, I want a gown, not too expensive, without sleeves."

She looked over her stock and showed me everything within reasonable price. I wasn't totally satisfied, so she showed me some more expensive ones.

CUSTOMER: "But these are too expensive."

SALESPERSON: "Then why not try one of these Philippine embroidered ones. I am sure you will like the arm holes as they are. We seem to be low on those with mere straps on the shoulders."

I paused and she quietly waited. Had she urged, I never would have purchased any. She had gone through all of the shelves so there was much disturbance to sell one gown, but she was pleasant all the time—very satisfactory—although there was some crude and noisy chatter from other girls in her department to my right. It seemed to embarrass her that they were so loud.[2]

[2] Quoted from *Cases in Retail Salesmanship,* by Natalie Kneeland (A. W. Shaw Company), pp. 176-177.

While this speaker spoke tactfully the one in the following case did not:

I stood looking at a rack of sport coats. This salesperson was just finishing taking a deposit on a dress which a woman had bought. She kept looking at me and seemed quite anxious to finish her other sale. She did not ask the other customer if she could show her anything else. Finally, she approached me with a mumbled greeting which I did not understand. I told her that I wanted to look at coats.

SALESPERSON: "Just a minute till I finish making out this check. I'll be right with you."

She seemed new at the job and nervous, and it was several minutes until she came to me. She hunted around for a rack of large sizes, pointed out a few without taking them from the rack, but finally suggested that I try one on. It proved to be too small.

SALESPERSON: "This button won't fasten. You're not so very skinny, are you?"

Perhaps she hasn't learned that large people don't like to have their size mentioned in that way.

SALESPERSON: "You wouldn't want a cape, would you?"

CUSTOMER: "Yes, I'd like to see them."

About this time she noticed the same woman whom she had just waited on, looking at coats nearby. Immediately she began to get anxious, and finally slipped over to tell her to wait a few minutes and she would wait on her again.

CUSTOMER: "What material is this?"

SALESPERSON: "Oh, that's a kind of polo cloth."

It has the color but not the appearance of polo cloth. As I still failed to find one of the three or four shown that pleased or fitted me well, I was not satisfied.

CUSTOMER: "What else do you have? I don't care for the ones I've seen so far. Can you show me something else?"

SALESPERSON: "These are $25.50. You wouldn't want to go that high, would you?"

CUSTOMER: "Yes, if I can find something I like."

She took down two or three more but she did not give selling points for any of them. Once she called me "Hon" and again referred to my lack of slenderness.

CUSTOMER: "I want to look upstairs before I decide."

SALESPERSON: "All right."

She seemed glad to be relieved of me.[3]

[3] *Ibid.*, pp. 177-178.

Enthusiasm. The final quality the speaker must have is enthusiasm. While he is talking he must feel that his ideas are important and that they are a benefit to the conferee. Enthusiasm is expressed by the manner of speaking more than by the words themselves. It has been defined as the gasoline which carries the human motor car to its destination. While this definition is a little inaccurate, because other things also carry us to the solutions of our speech problems, it indicates the importance of enthusiasm. It should be noted that the important thing is that the speaker have enthusiasm while he is speaking. It makes little or no difference how much enthusiasm he may have had when he was preparing his presentation or how much he may have had when he was talking to John Jones last week. The important thing is that while he is actually in the presence of the conferee his every word, movement, and vocal expression should indicate it.

These four qualities of leadership which are so necessary for successful speaking in conference might be likened to the four wheels of an automobile, while the subject might be likened to the engine and chassis. In order that the automobile travel where the driver wishes, the wheels must be in first-class condition and equipped with good tires. The engine and chassis cannot carry the machine to its destination without them. The same thing is true of the speech. It will not carry the speaker to his destination, i. e., the accomplishment of his purpose, unless these four qualities of personality are developed to a high degree. "Flat-tired" enthusiasm, tactlessness, muddled thinking, and lack of confidence will bring failure. Every speaker must, therefore, develop and keep alive the four qualities of leadership if he is to attain success.

THE FUNDAMENTAL QUALITIES OF SPEECH

In Chapter VI we said that certain qualities of speech were fundamental. These are *sense of communication, sincerity,*

and *animation*. Let us now briefly reexamine these from the point of view of the conferrer in conference.

Sense of communication. The conferrer, who has a strong sense of communication looks at his hearer, he leans slightly toward him and tries to make his contact with him personal and direct. He does not recline in a position of indolent ease. He sits erect at an alert position. The conferrer who regards the conferee's office as a lounging room will fail to establish the personal contact which he desires. When he sits erect, looks at the conferee and leans slightly toward him and speaks in a manner to indicate that he possesses the qualities of self-confidence, clear thinking, tact, and enthusiasm, he will establish more direct contact. Just to mention one of these, the matter of eye directness has a suggestive influence of the highest importance. When the conferrer looks at the conferee in a purposive way it suggests to the conferee that he look at him. When the conferrer persists in talking to the windows, chairs, and walls the natural suggestive reaction is to look at the same things. When the conferee is looking at the conferrer it is possible for him to give his best attention, for then he will receive the eye impressions as well as the ear impressions and these are just as important. While, when he is looking at other things he misses these impressions which come through the eye. Anything the speaker can do to get the conferee to look at him secures better attention and makes success more certain.

Sincerity. Second, the speaker should give every evidence of sincerity. He must believe in his product, service, or subject. He must believe that his ideas are of benefit to the hearer. It is only when he has deep conviction that he can communicate his sincerity. Sincerity is contagious and when the conferee detects it he develops more respect for the conferrer. It is a distinct aid to successful oral presentation.

Animation. Third, the speaker must be animated. He should emphasize his remarks by the use of head and hand gestures and other body movements. It is easier to attend to an object which moves. Test yourself. Look out of the

window and ten chances to one the first thing to claim your attention is that which moves, provided there is a moving object in sight. Animation is therefore used for two reasons: to assist the speaker in holding the attention of the hearer on his ideas and to emphasize certain parts of the talk. All of the movements the speaker makes should be such as aid him to communicate. He should not indulge in restless movements, for these detract and handicap, rather than aid. Be alive and animated.

THE USE OF THE VOICE

All speakers should strive to develop pleasing, well modulated voices. They should eliminate all vocal qualities which tend to distract and call attention away from the speaker's ideas. Throaty and nasal voices are a distinct handicap. Enunciation should be distinct, giving each syllable the proper amount of stress. Proper speaking requires proper breathing and openness of the tone passages. Speakers should develop the habit of using their total lung capacity. They should use what is called diaphragmatic or abdominal breathing rather than upper chest breathing. Develop a pleasing voice for it is a distinct business asset.[4]

THE USE OF HUMOR

The old-time salesman, who never failed to keep his bag of stories full, for reciting to his prospects, is rapidly disappearing. For him, a large part of his speech was the telling of stories. Modern business has very little use for the humorous story in a business conference unless it is brief and quite obviously illustrates a vital point of the talk. Therefore they should be used sparingly. When they are used, extreme care must be taken to prevent the humor from becoming the main thing in the talk rather than the serious

[4] For a fuller discussion of the speaking voice and exercises for its development see Sandford and Yeager, *Principles of Effective Speaking*, chap. xx.

ideas. Professor V. A. Ketcham tells the following account of how a college student allowed humor to overshadow the serious part of his speech. He was the third speaker in a college oratorical contest. The two preceding speakers had been forced to leave the platform in confusion after having forgotten their speeches. He began in this way:

> "Lord God of Hosts, be with us yet,
> Lest we forget, lest we forget."

The effort was a decided success, if success were to be judged by the amusement of the audience, but it only prolonged the time required to get the attention of the audience fixed on the serious subject which the speaker wished to present.[5]

HANDLING THE DISCOURTEOUS CONFEREE

Unfortunately it sometimes happens that the conferee is discourteous. Before the conferrer can deal with discourtesy he must find its cause and then attempt to remedy it. It may be caused by any one of a hundred or more different things. Sometimes the conferee will orally express the reason and other times the cause must be inferred from his actions or learned from someone else. A frequent cause is the conferrer's personality. If any trait of personality is decidedly out of harmony with that of the conferee, discourtesy often results. Very often it may be due to his dislike of the subject and the occasion used for presenting it. Sometimes it is caused by the activity level of the hearer. He may have just come out of a conference in which his superior took him to task for something he may have said or done. If he becomes angry in such a case, this anger tends to carry over into all succeeding conferences and may be a cause of discourtesy.

Regardless of the cause, the talk cannot in most cases be successful until the conferee becomes courteous again. If the speaker's personality is the cause, he usually can do nothing about it as far as that particular conference is con-

[5] *Argumentation and Debate*, by V. A. Ketcham, p. 102.

cerned. All that he can do is to strive to make his personality more pleasing and harmonious, before his next interview. If the subject is the cause, one method is to admit that the conferee has just cause for displeasure and strive to make amends. This method was used by the salesman in the following incident.[6]

The worst grouch I had in my territory was the purchasing agent of a large chemical plant. The last time I called on him he told me that he would never buy another dollar's worth of goods from my company as long as he lived.

I knew that we had made some goods for him that had never been right, but it was ancient history and I wanted to get a fresh start, so I said:

"If I were in your position, I'd probably feel as you feel. But that would not get us anywhere. So here is what I'd like to do to square myself, and you won't have to buy my goods if you don't want to.

"In order to make up for the bad service you formerly had from us, let me make a survey for an installation just as though I were an independent engineer. I will go over the whole thing carefully with your firm and plant superintendent and submit a written report. It won't cost you a cent and there'll be no obligation."

In the end he secured an order, not by outarguing the prospect, but by going at the matter from his point of view.

Sometimes the speaker can change discourtesy to courtesy by showing that he is not the cause of the hearer's displeasure. At other times, when he is actually at fault, he can secure respect by admitting his responsibility and immediately focusing attention on a respect-getting idea.

Whenever the conferrer is unable to find a reason for the discourtesy, he may be able to get the conference back onto the proper basis by expressing surprise at the treatment accorded him. When this method is used he should indicate by his words and manner that he expected better treatment and is greatly surprised. This method frequently secures the result desired.

Whatever the cause the conferrer must find some way of

[6] "The Little Schoolmaster's Classroom," *Printers' Ink*, December 28, 1921. Quoted from *Constructive Salesmanship*, by J. A. Stevenson, Harper & Brothers.

winning the man's respect. It is obvious that this is necessary before the conference can proceed.

EFFECTIVE USE OF SILENCE

An old Monkish proverb says, "There is a time for saying nothing, a time for saying something, but there is no time in which all things should be said." "Think twice before you speak once" is very useful advice to the conference speaker. Pause for thought enables the speaker to select the particular facts and opinions which will enable him to put his message vividly into the mind of the hearer. It also gives him an opportunity to get his ideas clearly in mind so he will be able to give them clear, forcible expression. This is the first use of silence.

A second important use of silence is to give the conferee an opportunity to ask a question or to comment on the subject of conference. The conferrer should encourage the conferee's active participation and this is one way of doing it.

A third use of silence is to give the conferee time to think about the subject of the conference. This method was used very effectively by the writer in a conference with the sales manager of one of our large automobile manufacturing concerns. He made his presentation and at the point where he detected the greatest interest, he paused and waited for the conferee to think about the proposition. Before the conferee could give his decision it was necessary for him to secure the approval of another official and at the end of the pause he said, "I can't give you a decision today, but if you will call me at 10 o'clock in the morning I will be able to tell you what we can do." The decision was favorable and the writer is convinced that his silence at the point of greatest interest was an important factor in the success of the interview. Had he kept on talking, without giving the conferee this period for thought, the interview might not have terminated successfully. When using silence the conferrer should maintain the same alert position and continue looking at the conferee.

So many speakers make the mistake of doing all of the talking without allowing the conferee to inject a single comment and without giving the conferee time to consider the proposition. Frequently they talk themselves out of a successful conclusion to the interview. Silence is often more effective than words in achieving the desired result. Give the hearer time to comment and to think and you will find silence a most effective technique. The conferrer must, of course, be keenly alert and observing in order to detect the places where it is better to keep silent, rather than to continue talking.

SUMMARY

The pre-approach or the preliminary conference is used to complete the conferrer's analysis of the conferee. It usually should only be used when there is no other way of getting the information necessary to complete the analysis.

The greeting of the parties to the conference is determined by their relations to each other. If they are long and intimate friends or associates, the informal greeting is very common. If they are strangers the formal greeting should be used. Each party should be addressed as he wishes. Many conferrers fail, through failure to use this fundamental rule.

In opening the conference it is necessary to secure the effortless attention of the conferee. The speaker must not be deceived by the appearance of attention and he must not be satisfied with voluntary attention. He secures effortless attention by interesting the conferee in the subject of the conference, from the very beginning. There are two ways of opening the conference: by immediate statement of purpose and by reference to the secondary and momentary interests of the hearer. In most conferences the first of these is more effective. This is especially true of the conferences necessary for the conduct of the internal business of an organization. When the conference is opened in this way, the

sentence containing the immediate statement of purpose must also be directly connected with the hearer's wants.

Secondary and momentary interests may be used whenever they present an opportunity for providing a congenial and friendly opening. The speaker must not be abrupt in their use. He must not refer to them, when there is no opportunity for doing so. When references to secondary or momentary interests are obviously "dragged in" the reaction opposite to that which is intended is created; ill will usually results. Even when this method is used the main part of the conference should be opened by a statement of the speaker's purpose which should be connected with the hearer's wants.

Questions are used for two chief purposes, to secure information and to secure yes-responses. Whenever the speaker thinks that the conferee will not hesitate to give the information desired, it may be stated in the form of a direct question; when he feels that the conferee may not want to give it, the question should be worded indirectly. The second use of questions is used to get the conferee into the habit of agreeing with the conferrer. When a chain of yes-responses has been built up it becomes more difficult for the conferee to say "No" when he comes to the place where decision is required.

The conferrer should carefully observe the hearer to get clues about the reception of his ideas. These impressions are received through both the eye and the ear. In the case of the ear two sets of impressions are received; those contained in the words used by the conferee and those conveyed by the tone of voice in which those words are uttered.

Common ground is used, (1) when the argument becomes too heated; (2) when the conferrer needs time to collect his wits for a fresh attack on the conferee's position; (3) when you wish to lead him onto a new line of argument; (4) when you wish to terminate the discussion amicably.

The conferrer's manner of speaking should reflect throughout that he is a master in the use of self-confidence, clear thinking, tact, and enthusiasm. It should also make use of

the fundamental qualities of delivery; sense of communication, sincerity, and animation.

Humor should be used sparingly in conferences. When it is used, the story must be obviously connected directly with the subject being discussed and it must be brief, not calling attention away from the serious ideas being presented.

When the conferee is discourteous, the conferrer should strive to find the cause of the discourtesy and adopt the method best suited for changing his attitude to courtesy.

Silence, surprisingly to some, is one of the essential techniques of conference work. Knowing when to keep quiet and when to talk is a priceless business asset. Silence is used to enable the speaker to "think twice before speaking once," to give the conferee a chance to participate directly in the conference and to allow him to think about the more important ideas presented.

XXII

THE CONFERRER'S CONDUCT OF THE CONFERENCE

QUESTIONS AND OBJECTIONS

Causes of questions and objections. Types of questions. How to answer questions. Types of objections. The secret of meeting objections. Methods of meeting objections. Universal objections. Particular objections. Particular objections in informative talks. Particular objections in persuasive talks. Sales talks. Inspirational talks. Discussions of policy. Mastery of the subject and meeting objections. The conferrer's manner of speaking.

We have now considered the general methods of conducting a conference. We have indicated the various forms of greeting the conferee in opening the conference and the conferrer's use of questions. We have indicated the importance of carefully observing the conferee and the uses of common ground or points or agreement. The conferrer's manner of speaking has been discussed, under those qualities which are necessary for success; self-confidence, clear thinking, tact, and enthusiasm. In addition to these we have pointed out that his speaking should have three important characteristics: sense of communication, sincerity, and animation. We have given some suggestions for the use of the voice. The discourteous conferee is discussed. Finally, we have indicated the uses of silence in a conference, from the point of view of the conferrer. We are now ready to consider the conferrer's ability to answer questions and meet objections satisfactorily.

The degree of skill with which the conferrer meets questions and objections is a very important factor in the success of the conference. He must be able to handle every possible point in such a way as to win the conferee's confidence and secure his agreement. In this connec-

tion, we must again emphasize the importance of careful and thorough preparation. The speaker must have complete information on the subject of the conference and about the conferee, if he is to handle questions and objections effectively. To overlook any important bit of information is often fatal. The groundwork of the conferrer's answers to questions and replies to objections must be laid in his preparation for the conference. To be sure, his answers will not always be presented in the way he has planned. In the conference itself he must adjust each one to the form in which the question is asked or the objection raised. Other than that, preparation for this phase of conference speaking should be made beforehand. It should never be left to the time of the conference. To do so is to decrease greatly his chances of success.

CAUSES OF QUESTIONS AND OBJECTIONS

Questions and objections usually arise from six sources, regardless of the subject of the conference. These are, *fears, unwillingness to change, dislike for the speaker, lack of complete information, inability to do the thing asked,* and *business conditions.*

Fears usually arise through a belief that the action proposed will not do the thing the speaker claims for it. The particular form of the fear is determined by the subject of the conference. When a new policy is proposed to the business executive, fears are often created. He fears that the policy will not work, or if it will work, it will not be as successful as the present one. He fears that the cost of making the change will be too great or that it will involve higher operating costs. He may have a dozen or two specific fears about the proposal and each one gives rise to an objection. Objections caused by fears are usually reasons rather than excuses.

Unwillingness to change is the cause of many of the objections of the conservative-minded. In this case most of the

objections are excuses. When a policy is being discussed the conferee says, "Why should we change? Our present policy has been working all right and we are making a profit." In this way the person who is unwilling to change raises objections because he is very reluctant to change his habits of thought and action.

Dislike for the speaker arouses many objections. Objections of this type are usually excuses, but sometimes they are reasons. The conferee thinks of reasons for not doing the thing asked, which take the form of excuses.

Objections caused by a lack of complete information are usually reasons. They arise because the information already presented has not convinced the conferee that the proposed action will be beneficial to him.

Objections arising from an inability to do the thing asked may be either excuses or reasons. When objections of this type are raised the conferrer has to decide whether it is an excuse or a reason before he can answer it effectively.

Business conditions also give rise to objections. The conferee says, "The cost of your service is too high for us now. Our sales have been falling off and we cannot make any unusual expenditure."

TYPES OF QUESTIONS

The conferee will ask two important types of questions. He either wants to secure information or he wants to sidetrack the conferrer. When the conferrer is a person whom the conferee wished to see, questions of the first type usually predominate. The conferee wants to help the conferrer communicate his message clearly and he usually asks questions for the purpose of gaining information about the subject of the conference. The other type is far more often used in conferences when the conferrer is a stranger and when the conferee did not wish to see him. When the conferee wishes to end the interview and get rid of the conferrer he may ask questions for the purpose of detecting the conferrer's lack

of information, and thus place him in an unfavorable position.

When the conferrer is a stranger to the conferee he can usually avoid questions of the second type if he is able, from the beginning of the conference, to arouse the conferee's interest. When interest is aroused the conferee will ask questions to inform himself of the facts, in an honest effort to arrive at a decision. Regardless of the motive behind the question, the conferrer should be able to answer it fully and at once, to the satisfaction of the conferee. To fail to do so, is to reveal incompetence.

HOW TO ANSWER QUESTIONS

The questions that the conferrer knows are unimportant to the conference may be answered very briefly. In some cases, when the conferee asks a whole series of questions of this type, some of them may be passed over and not answered, unless the conferee refers to them again. When the conferrer, on the other hand, knows that the question is important, he should take care to answer it fully.

When the question is unimportant, he must not, however, indicate this to the conferee but should answer it as though it were important and one normally expected under the circumstances. He should indicate by both word and manner that he regards the conferee's comments as valuable to the discussion. (See also the final section of this chapter.)

TYPES OF OBJECTIONS

We have already indicated in our discussion of the sources of objections that they are of two types: *excuses* and *reasons*. The fundamental difference between them is to be found in the state of the conferee's interest in the subject of the conference. If he is not interested, his objections tend to take the form of excuses. If he is interested, they take the form of reasons. Since excuses are made when the conferee is

not interested, it follows that they are often the more difficult to answer. It often happens too that the same objection will be an excuse in one conference and a reason in another. The conferrer must detect when the objection is a reason and when it is an excuse.

When the conferrer decides that the objection is an excuse, he should answer it in such a way as to arouse interest in the subject. Interest must be aroused before any action can follow. The answer should, therefore, show how the subject satisfies a want of the conferee. It will not be effective in arousing interest unless it does this.

A very common objection in the sale of any commodity or service is, "I don't need it." When the speaker detects that this statement is an excuse rather than a reason, his answer must show how doing the thing he asks will satisfy the conferee's wants and interests. Insurance salesmen frequently answer this excuse in this way:

> Your remark indicates that you have caught the one big point about life insurance that most men miss altogether, and that is that life insurance serves needs. You may be absolutely right when you say you have all you need. Now, you know your needs and I know how to make life insurance fit them. Suppose we talk it over together for a few minutes; if we decide that you really have all you need, it will have cost you only a few minutes of your time; and if we decide that you haven't, I can be of real service to you.

Another answer is:

> You say you have $2,000 of insurance and that is all you need. Probably you have never thought of this amount of insurance in terms of daily income. This sum invested at 6 per cent would yield $10 a month, or about 33⅓ cents a day. The important question for you to consider is whether this is all your family would need.[1]

Excuses occur most often at the beginning of the interview when the conferrer has not as yet been able to arouse the conferee's interest. They represent the conferee's efforts to

[1] Both of these answers are quoted from *Meeting Objections*, by J. A. Stevenson (Harper & Brothers), pp. 52-53.

terminate the interview quickly and get rid of the conferrer. They are more frequent when the conferrer is one whom the conferee did not wish to see and less frequent when he is a friend or associate of the conferee's.

The speaker should be prepared to answer all excuses. If he accepts the excuse, he is beaten. They are tests of his ability to handle the interview effectively.

When the objection is a reason, it must usually be handled more concretely with a careful explanation. The answers to the excuse given above are stated in general terms, while the following answer to the objection stated as a reason is concrete. It shows exactly how the conferee needed insurance.

I knew Miss White as a member of a whist club. I knew that she had been a stenographer for a good many years; that her father had died in another state about eight months before; that she lived alone in a two-room furnished apartment. She appeared to be about 33 or 34 years of age.

One night while some one was dealing, I said: "Miss White, have you any life insurance?"

"Why, no; why should I have life insurance?"

"Don't you need life insurance?"

"No, I don't need it."

"That is interesting. Some day I want to tell you why you need life insurance."

"All right, I'll listen."

That was all. About three months later I 'phoned her:

"What are you doing this evening?"

"Nothing in particular."

"I'd like to come over and tell you about that life insurance."

"All right."

As I sat down, Miss White said: "Now, Mr. Duryea, before you begin I want to tell you that I am not going to buy any insurance, because I do not need it. My mother and father are both dead; I never had any brothers or sisters; in fact, I haven't a living relative in the world—oh yes! I have a cousin, a married woman, living in Los Angeles. She is the only relative I have, and we seldom communicate. So you see, I do not need any life insurance."

"Well," I said, "that is a good place to begin. Let me ask you this question. You are liable to die, are you not?"

"Why, yes, of course."

"And when you die, it is at least probable that you may be sick for a week, or a month, or six months, or longer. Isn't that true?"

"Yes."

"And if you are sick, you will have to go to a hospital?"

"Yes, I would have to."

"All right. The hospital will furnish you a bed, food, laundry, and all the comforts they can. And a doctor will come to see you every morning, and give you medicine and try to cure you. And a little nurse will smile at you, and smooth down your pillow, and look after you, and try to make your last days on earth as happy as possible. And then you die. After that an undertaker will look after you and fix you for the last long sleep.

"And after it is all over, the undertaker will get his money or he will not; and the hospital bill will be paid or it will go unpaid; and the doctor who tried to cure you will receipt his bill in full or charge it off his books; and the little nurse who smoothed down your pillow, and smiled at you, and tried to make your last days happy and cheerful, will be paid for her work, or she will go unpaid. Do you want all of these people to go unpaid?"

"I should say not!"

"Have you got enough money saved up to pay them—if that sickness started tonight, or next month, or next year?"

"No, I haven't."

"Then you do need some life insurance to square you with the world, don't you?"

"You know, Mr. Duryea, I never thought of life insurance like that before; it looks as if I do."[2]

THE SECRET OF MEETING OBJECTIONS

The secret of meeting objections is to detect the objection before it is stated. The speaker should use his eyes and his ears to learn the nature of the objection before it is orally expressed. After it has been stated, and this is especially true of reasons, the conferee is naturally impelled to defend his position. When he defends his position, the objection becomes stronger to him and the chances of the conferrer for a successful conclusion of the conference become less. He should observe the conferee's every change of facial

[2] Quoted from *What to Say*, by J. B. Duryea, pp. 46-48.

expression, word, and tone, as he presents his proposition, in order to detect the reception of each idea. If he carefully observes, he can often tell exactly what the objection is.

When the objection is stated it becomes a no-response. When the conferee defends the objection each statement builds up more no-responses, which make the speaker's task very difficult. He should strive to detect the objection, before it is orally expressed, in order to reduce the number of no-responses to a minimum. In the conference we have just presented, in the preceding section, the objection was orally expressed. But Mr. Duryea was able to answer it so completely that more no-responses did not follow the first one.

METHODS OF MEETING OBJECTIONS

Objections are answered in two general ways: by giving information and by giving reasons. When the objection is obviously due to a lack of information, the conferrer should be able to supply the information immediately. To answer objections of this type fully and to the satisfaction of the conferee is to go far in conferences. In order to illustrate this method of answering an objection, we are including the following account of an insurance sales conference. You will notice that the salesman learned the character of the objection before approaching the prospect and that he gave no opportunity for a no-response.

Mr. Walters, in the following sales talk, was of that class who refused, "to let any company take his money and make a lot of profit out of it." At least that was the way I sized him up while on the way to his house. I was working in a small town and our examiner told me about Mr. Walters. "There is an orchardist named Walters about two miles out who has been solicited by every insurance man in the valley during the past two months, and he won't buy. Go out and see him—I believe you can write him."

I found Walters pruning apple trees. He stood on the ground and used shears with handles ten or twelve feet long.

"Are you Mr. Walters?"

"Yes."

"I am Mr. Duryea, of the Penn Mutual Life Insurance Company."

(He grunted, but did not stop work. I got paper and pencil out of my pocket.)

"Mr. Walters, do you have *any* conception at all of what a life insurance company does with a premium paid to it by a policyholder?"

"No." (When I started to make figures he stopped working and in a few minutes let the shears down, and gave attention.)

"Well, I will show you. Let this line" (a straight line about four inches long) "represent the premium on a thousand dollars at age 41—which is $32." (I guessed his age at 41 though later it proved to be 43.) "Now the company takes out, say $5.50, for expenses." (I marked off, with a cross line, about half an inch on the premium line.) "Now we will see how much it takes to pay the first year's death losses." (I found the mortality table in the rate book and showed him the death rate at age 41.) "The death rate is ten a thousand. Suppose we had a thousand men your age lined up here in the orchard; we know that ten of them will be dead a year from today. We do not know which ten but the table shows that ten will be dead. So each of the thousand men must put $10 in a 'pot' at the beginning of the year so there will be $1,000 for each of the ten widows at the end of the year. Thus it will take $10" (marked it off on the premium line) "to pay the death losses even if the money should collect itself and pay itself out without expense. So we have $5.50 for expense and $10 to pay death losses. That is $15.50. The balance" (marked off the rest of the line) "is $16.50, which we set aside each year" (made short straight lines to represent six or eight years) "at interest, and reserve it to pay the death losses as our thousand men get older and die faster than ten a thousand.

"You will see here in the mortality table that at age 55 they die at the rate of 18; age 65 at the rate of 40; age 75 at the rate of 94—it will take $94.37 to pay the death losses that year, although we never increase your premium above the original amount, $32. In order to be able to pay these increasing death losses we set aside, and reserve each year this last part of your premium, $16.50, and add to it compound interest. In this way we have just enough money each year to pay the year's death losses. If you want to quit at any time after three years, we will give you back this money of yours which has been reserved,—and the compound interest it has earned—because, if you discontinue, we will not be called upon to pay anything at your death, so we will have no need for the money we were reserving for that

purpose. If you thus withdraw your money it will not affect any other policyholder, because each policy has its own reserve.

"Now, as to the dividends that are returned to you each year. This $5.50 which the company took for expenses had to be set aside at the beginning of the year, before the company knew what the exact expenses would be. Suppose I sent you to San Francisco to transact some business for me and was to pay your expenses. We figure the railroad fare, hotel, meals, street car, etc., and find that your exact expenses will be $12.85. Now I would not hand you exactly $12.85 to make the trip, because the train might be delayed, or something else happen, causing you to have additional expense. I would likely hand you $15 and tell you to make the trip and return to me what you had not spent. Don't you think that would be the reasonable thing to do?"

"Yes, I think so."

"Well, that is just what the company does. At the end of the year, it knows how much it has spent for officers' and clerks' salaries, agents' commissions, rents, postage, printing, national and state taxes, and all other items. Hence it takes out enough at the beginning of the year, before it knows the exact amount, to be sure it can pay all expenses. At the end of the year it returns to the policyholder what it did not use. In this case we took out $5.50; but at the end of the year suppose we find the expenses have been only $5.05. Here is 45 cents that the company does not need, so it returns this 45 cents to you,—the man who advanced it. This 45 cents could not go to anyone else. It could not go to the clerks, agents, nor the officers, because their total compensation is paid out of the $5.05. All expenses of every kind are included in the $5.50 The 45 cents is left over and there is only one place it can go, and that is back to you,—the man who paid it in. It could not go to any other policyholder because he gets his return from his own premuim.

"Now this $10 we took for death losses the first year. The mortality table is based on people in all stages of health. But we take our thousand people to a doctor and accept as members only the healthy lives. It takes nine or ten years for the benefit of this medical selection to wear off and put our policyholders back into an average class. Hence, the first year we will not have as many deaths as the table shows. Say we have six deaths the first year. We took out $10 to pay death losses and now we find that $6 is all we need. Here is $4 that is not needed, so we return this $4 to you.

"Then, there is the $16.50 which we are reserving at interest to pay the higher death losses in the future. We assume a rate of

interest on this reserve, which added to the reserve, will produce a fund equal to the amount needed to pay the death losses each year as the policyholder gets older. This assumed rate of interest cannot be changed, and since some of this money will not be needed for twenty, thirty, or fifty years, we must fix on a rate below which interest rates on investment will probably never go. If, in the future, we were unable to invest money at a rate as high as our assumed rate, we would become insolvent. Therefore for the sake of greater security, we assume a rate of interest of only three per cent, and put to the credit of the policy a sum of money ($16.50) which, with three per cent compound interest, will at all times maintain our contracts and enable us to pay all our claims whenever they occur. This three per cent reserve basis does not regulate the actual investment of the Company's money. We would invest our money at eight per cent or ten per cent if we could, but as you know, it is not possible to find absolutely safe investments, at present, that pay such rates of interest. Our investments are paying a little over five and three-fourths per cent —say five per cent. We need only three per cent interest to maintain our reserve, so there is two per cent left over that is not needed. The mortality fund, $10, and the reserve fund, $16.50, are invested, so two per cent on $26.50 is 53 cents more that must be returned to you.

"So adding these returns we find that we have $4.98 to be returned to you, as dividends, at the end of the year. Of course, I have not tried to be accurate in these figures, merely showing you the principle of the thing. Let me see what the actual dividend is for age 41. (Showed the dividend schedule.) You see the actual dividend being paid the first year is $5.64, so your second year's deposit will not be $32.03 but only $26.39.

"There is just one other thing I want to explain to you. If I were going to advise you to carry life insurance I would advise an Ordinary Life. But I would not think of letting you take an Ordinary Life contract without explaining what kind of a contract it is. (I assumed that most of the other agents had talked Twenty Payment Life as the 'best policy.')

"Suppose you came to me and said: 'I want $1,000 of life insurance; what will it cost me?' (Consulted rate book.) You will see here that the premium for $1,000 life insurance, at age 41, is $520. That is the single payment for the $1,000 insurance if you paid for it in one sum the same as you buy a reaper, an automobile, or a piano, and pay for it when you buy it.

"But, you say, you do not want to pay so much at one time. Our actuary says, all right, we will give you about any kind of

terms you want. You must pay in the equivalent of $520 whether you pay it all at once, or in installments.

"We will divide $520 by five, make an adjustment for interest and mortality, and let you pay one payment each year for five years, and give you a Five Payment Life.

"Or, we will divide it by ten and give you a Ten Payment Life.

"Or by thirteen or fifteen, or twenty, and give you a Twenty Payment Life. (Illustrating with pencil.)

"Or we will do this: We will see how long you have to live. (Consulted mortality table and let him see it.) You have 27.45 years to live, so we will divide the $520 by 27.45, make an adjustment for interest and mortality, and give you an Ordinary Life.

"So you see that an Ordinary Life, a Twenty Payment Life, a One Payment Life, and any other form of 'life' policy, are exactly the same insurance. The only difference is in the terms of payment.

"Suppose you go to town to buy a piano, and the price is $500. You can't pay that much at one time, so the dealer says, 'All right, I'll give you any kind of terms you want. You can pay $5 a month, $10 a month, $20, $30, $50, or $100 a month. You can have any kind of terms you want; and I will do this with you: Select the terms you want, and I'll put a clause in the contract to the effect that if you die before completing the payments, the contract will become a bill of sale to your wife, and I will cancel all the remaining installments.'

"Now, Walters, if money was a little close with you on a deal of that kind, which method of paying would you select?"

"I think with a deal like that I would select the slowest way of paying."

"So would I—and that, applied to insurance, is an Ordinary Life. The piano is the same piano, and you have it in your house all the time, no matter which method of paying you adopt; and the insurance is the same insurance, and you have it in your deposit box, no matter which terms of payment you adopt. The only difference is in the terms of payment; and if money is not too plentiful it is better to take the slowest terms, which is Ordinary Life."

"But I wouldn't want a policy that I would have to pay on all my life."

"Who told you that?"

"That is what I understand."

"Well, that is wrong. It would be unreasonable to plan to pay premiums, or installments of any other kind, after a man is

too old to work. If you live to the time when you can no longer work and earn money, you yourself will become dependent on something or somebody, just as your wife and children are now dependent on you. At that time I shall expect you to surrender your Ordinary Life policy and take down the reserve I told you about for your own old age. You can take it as a lump sum of money, or exchange the fund for another contract that will pay you a salary every month during all the rest of your life."

At this juncture a man drove up to the warehouse, about two hundred yards away, and Walters started to go. I followed. The man wanted six bushels of onions. When he drove away, Walters and I were standing on the warehouse platform about thirty yards from the house.

"All right, Mr. Walters, let's go into the house and fix it up," I said, and without waiting for any reply, nor looking at him, I started for the house. He followed. We went into the dining room, and as I pulled a chair up to the table, I said:

"Shall I make it $5,000 or $10,000?"

"Oh, I think $5,000 will be enough."

"What is your full name?" I wrote the application, which he signed. I then told him the semi-annual premium and asked him to give me a check. He gave me the check, and I arranged for him to go to town that evening to be examined.[3]

The conferee in this particular conference was already convinced that he needed the protection of life insurance, at least that was the assumption on which the conferrer proceeded. Supplying the information, alone, led to a successful termination of the conference.

When the second method is used the conferrer should answer the objection fully by giving reasons why the conferee is wrong in his objection. Note the reasons advanced by the salesman in the conference we have quoted beginning on page 312.

Both of these methods of meeting objections, i. e., by supplying information and presenting reasons, make use of the speech details discussed in Chapter V of Part I. These are *specific cases, comparisons, statistics, expert opinions,* and *reiteration.*

Note the use of specific cases, comparisons, and statistics

[3]Quoted from *What to Say,* by J. B. Duryea, pp. 60-66.

in the conferences we have quoted on pages 314 to 319 and 312 to 313. Testimony or expert opinion is used in the following account of a part of a conference in the sale of life insurance. The prospect had asked for a sample policy before making his decision and this is what the salesman said:

"Mr. Prospect, I think too much of my reputation as a salesman to run the risk of having something happen to you and have your wife find one of my sample policies in your desk, and no insurance in force. When a man wants a sample policy I always think of what that woman in Yakima, Washington, said when she found five $10,000 sample policies in her husband's desk after he was hit by a speeding automobile. She said: "If John had objected to life insurance I could forgive him, but when his dilly-dallying over sample policies with a view of saving one or two dollars has left the children and me absolutely destitute, I—well, I just feel bitter, and I can't help it." [4]

UNIVERSAL OBJECTIONS

Some kinds of objections are presented in almost every conference, and we therefore label them, "universal." We do not mean to give the impression that all common types of objections are raised in every conference. Far from it. All of them may be presented, especially when the conferee is seeking an excuse for not doing the thing asked of him. Usually, however, only a few are presented and sometimes only one. It is impossible to read the reports of many business conferences without noting the frequency of this type of objection. Very often they are excuses and sometimes they are reasons. Common universal objections are the following:

I haven't the time.
It doesn't fit my problems.
I don't understand it.
It won't do what you say it will.
I don't like you or the people you represent.
I don't need it.

In some form or other one or more of these objections are

[4] Quoted from *What to Say*, by J. B. Duryea, p. 39.

almost certain to come up in every conference. In addition to these, there are objections which are peculiar to conferences on special subjects.

PARTICULAR OBJECTIONS

Particular objections are those which arise because of the special nature of the subject matter of the conference. Each conference subject presents a new problem in answering objections because the type of objections is different with each. It is true that with particular subjects many of the so-called universal objections are presented also.

A particular objection sometimes made in the sale of life insurance is, "My wife has money of her own and will not need insurance." In the sale of educational services a frequent objection is, "I already have more books and magazines than I can read." In proposing new policies in an organization a common objection is, "We are getting along very well now. Why should we adopt this new and untried policy?" Each particular subject therefore presents its own problem in answering objections.

PARTICULAR OBJECTIONS IN INFORMATIVE TALKS

When the speaker is making an informative talk, such as giving instruction or making an oral report, the particular objections are such as to call for more information about one or more phases of the talk. The same thing is true of the informative speaking which is a necessary means to the end of a persuasive speech.

Suppose that the speaker is making an oral report on the method used for sewage disposal in another community and he says that after all of the solid materials have been taken from it the water remaining is allowed to flow into a nearby river. If the hearer objects to this method of disposal on the ground that all of the bacteria have not been removed and that the river will be polluted, the speaker must intro-

duce facts to show that the water is not dangerous to either plant or animal life. This is a particular objection growing out of the subject.

PARTICULAR OBJECTIONS IN PERSUASIVE TALKS

Sales talks. As we have pointed out every kind of product or service has its own problem in meeting objections. Each has objections peculiar to it. In order to indicate the variety of objections raised in the sale of one particular product we are including here a list of all of the principal objections made in the sale of insurance.[5]

A careful and exhaustive study has been made of objections to determine the classification. The study has shown that the following twenty classes cover, for all practical purposes, all the objections met by insurance salesmen. It is certain that in every sale one or more of these twenty objections will appear.

I can't afford it.
I want to pay my present debts first.
I have all the insurance I want. I don't want any more insurance.
I have all the insurance I need.
I want to talk it over with my wife.
I am single and do not need it.
I am not ready now. I will take it later.
I will think it over.
I can use my money to better advantage.
My wife objects to insurance.
I prefer assessment insurance.
Against my religion.
Can save my own money.
I have property and do not need it.
I can't pay for it just now.
Do not believe in insurance.
My children can support themselves. I had to hustle and why shouldn't they?
I don't want a lot of money for some other man to spend.
My wife earned a good salary before we were married and she could return to the same occupation.

[5] This list is quoted from *Meeting Objections*, by J. A. Stevenson (Harper & Brothers), pp. 43-89. For suggested answers to each of these objections see this book.

My wife has money of her own. My wife's people are wealthy.

Inspirational talks. The types of objections raised in every inspirational talk are governed by the work and the personality of the conferee or audience. The business executive tries to inspire his employees by sublimating the character of the work they are doing. (See Chapter XI, page 176.) If the conferee objects on the ground that his work is not important, that is a particular objection in each case. He may object that the work does not give sufficient opportunity for the satisfaction of his wants. He may say that he has done everything to increase his efficiency, that the speaker has suggested, but still is not able to accomplish results. He may say that the suggestions of the speaker will not work. In each case he presents suggestions peculiar to his own work and personality.

Discussions of policy. Here again, the character of the objections is to a large extent determined by the particular policy being discussed and the particular organization involved.

A large department store recently held a number of conferences of the principal executives to decide the future of their furniture department. This department had for some time been losing money and some of the executives proposed that it should be discontinued. Others thought that the department was an asset to the organization, in spite of its losses, and thought that improvement would result from more intelligent buying. Some of the objections they presented to the proposal to discontinue were the following:

The space now used for the furniture department could not be profitably used by the other departments.

A better record could be shown by more intelligent buying.

Old stocks must be cleared by special sales price inducements.

The furniture department contributes a large volume of sales and absorbs a large proportion of the total overhead.

If it is discontinued, the store would lose heavily in the sale of related articles, as blankets, rugs, and other articles sold in the house furnishings division.

The furniture department helps to smooth out the sales peaks for the whole store.

MASTERY OF THE SUBJECT AND MEETING OBJECTIONS

It is obvious that the only sure method of meeting objections successfully is through complete information about the subject of the conference, regardless of the particular article, service, personality, work, or policy involved. As has been pointed out, success in conference is largely dependent on the speaker's knowledge of the subject. Objections test the conferrer's information. They force him to know all of the facts about the subject, if he is to conclude successfully. Know all about your subject and you will be equipped to give effective answers to objections. Overlook any important fact and you make success less certain.

THE CONFERRER'S MANNER OF SPEAKING

Make answer action-assisting. The answer should completely satisfy the conferee on the point raised. It must appear to him to be a good and sufficient answer. If for any reason the answer does not appear to be sufficient to the conferee, it will be action-resisting rather than action-assisting. Do not try to sidestep objection, particularly if it is important, for evasion makes agreement more difficult. Make your manner of speaking one of sympathy and understanding.

Treat the conferee as an equal. There is no quicker way to arouse antagonism than to "talk down" to your hearer. Do not assume an attitude of superiority. Assume throughout that your hearer is well informed and that he has honest convictions about the subject. Answer every objection, no matter how trivial it may seem to you, in a manner to indicate that you regard it as important. Meet the conferee as an equal and you will place the conference on a friendly, conciliatory basis. The superior attitude arouses no-responses and makes agreement more difficult.

The writer just listened to a conference on a matter of policy, in which the general manager of a business organization was trying to win the support of one of the department

managers to a new proposal. The proposal was that he take a man from another department into his own and pay him more than the beginning rate for men in his department. The department manager opposed the proposal because it made his costs higher. The whole attitude of the general manager throughout the conference was one of superiority. He did not treat the conferee as an equal. He did not indicate that he thought that the conferee's objections were worth considering. The result was that the department manager was more persistent than he otherwise might have been. Of course, in this case the general manager could impose his will on the department manager, but his attitude not only made agreement in that particular conference more difficult to secure, but he injured himself in the eyes of that department manager for some time to come. Always treat your conferee as an equal.

Do not assume that conferee will refuse. To assume that the conferee will refuse leads to an aggressive, pugnacious attitude in answering his objections. This is always undesirable. Do not carry "chips on your shoulder." Go into every conference fully convinced that the conferee will adopt your point of view if you can show the advantages to him and to the organization. When you answer objections, do so in a way to indicate that you believe that he will agree with you if you make the subject clear to him and if you convince him of its benefits.

Avoid arousing no-responses. What has just been said may be summed up in the phrase, "avoid arousing no-responses." The speaker's whole manner of speaking, in answering objections, should be such as to indicate an understanding of the hearer's problems and a real desire to help him arrive at a correct decision.

SUMMARY

Skill in the handling of questions and objections is a prime requisite for successful conference speaking. The speaker

must prepare in advance for the objections which the conferee will raise.

Questions and objections are caused by fear, unwillingness to change, dislike for the speaker, lack of complete information, inability to do the thing asked, and business conditions.

There are two types of questions. They are asked to secure information or to sidetrack the conferrer. They should be answered in a way to indicate that the speaker regards them as important.

There are two types of objections: excuses and reasons. Excuses are presented when the conferee's interest has not been aroused. Reasons are presented when his interest has been aroused.

The secret of meeting objections is to detect the objection before it is stated. After it is stated there is a no-response and the conferee usually feels that he must sustain his position.

Both questions and objections are answered either by giving information or by giving reasons or by the use of both. In giving the information or the reason the speaker should make use of speech details; specific cases, comparisons, statistics, expert opinion, and reiteration.

Objections may be universal or particular. Universal objections are those which are common to all types of speech. Particular objections are those which arise because of the subject matter of the particular conference.

The best preparation for answering objections is thorough knowledge of the subject matter of the conference and knowledge of the hearer's wants and interests.

The conferrer's manner of speaking should be action-assisting and not action-resisting. He should treat the conferee as an equal. He should assume that the conferee will agree, if he shows him how his proposal will satisfy his wants. He should avoid a manner which arouses no-responses.

XXIII

THE CONFEREE'S RESPONSE

Two kinds of conferrers. Methods of preventing conferences. The conferee's greeting. The conferee's response to presentation. Effect of questions. Effect of objections. The persistent conferrer. How to say "No."

HAVING just discussed the methods used by the conferrer in the conference we are ready to indicate the nature of the conferee's response. We shall discuss his response not from the point of view of the conferrer but from his own. Far too often the speech situation is thought of only from the point of view of the conferrer. Much has been written on the methods the conferrer should use to influence the thought and the conduct of the conferee. But little has been written to tell the conferee how to govern himself, in the conference, in order to protect his own interests. For this purpose the conferee should know just as much about the efficient handling of his part of the conference as the conferrer must know about his. To be ineffective as a conferee is frequently to have one's thought and conduct influenced when it should not be. Complete knowledge of how the conferee should conduct himself in the conference will tend to reduce to a minimum these unfortunate experiences.

TWO KINDS OF CONFERRERS

From the point of view of the conferee, all conferrers fall into two classes: those he is glad to see and those he does not wish to see. The technique of the conferee is different with each, in some important particulars and the same in others. These differences and likenesses will be noted as our discussion proceeds.

In general, we may say now that the whole tone of the

conference when the conferee wants to see the conferrer is one of geniality and friendliness, while when he does not wish to see him it is one of formality and even coolness. In the first case, all of the conferee's questions and objections and his manner of speaking are intended to assist the conferrer in making his presentation clear and vivid. In the latter case, the opposite is usually true. He is not interested in giving the conferrer assistance but is interested, on the contrary, in doing all that he can to make the conferrer's presentation ineffective. His questions may deal with an unimportant phase of the subject, in order to divert the conferrer from the more important ones. His objections may be excuses and be presented for the sole purpose of confusing the conferrer. He may try to get the conferrer into an argument and attempt to show that his ideas are wrong, solely for the purpose of making his task more difficult. It often happens too that the conferee will consent to an interview for the purpose of carefully observing the methods used by the conferrer and not because he has any interest in his ideas. This occurs when the conferee is especially interested in learning new methods of handling facts and opinions. His method is to make the conferrer's task as difficult as possible in order to observe how effectively he talks.

The writer knows a man who does not own a dollar's worth of life insurance and who is fully determined not to buy any. He is quite well provided with property of various kinds and feels that in case of his death, that his family will have more than enough, not only for the necessities of life but for the luxuries as well. This man, however, makes it a point to grant every life insurance salesman an interview, for the reason that he is keenly interested in the problem of effective communication, and he uses these conferences to acquire new ideas.

The point we are making is that when the conferee has no interest in the subject of the talk he usually uses the conference, when he grants the interview, to gain information of value for himself. Of course, there are times when he grants

the interview to avoid antagonizing the conferrer. *It must also be said of both types of conferrers that the conferee uses his words and manner of speaking in such a way as to protect his own interests, regardless of what those interests may be.*

When he talks to a conferrer whom he is glad to see, his whole technique is to insure the satisfaction of his wants. His words and manner of speaking are all intended to assist him to reach a conclusion, about how the speaker's ideas may be a factor in the satisfaction of those wants.

When he grants an interview to a man, whom he does not wish to see, he is not primarily interested in finding out how his ideas may satisfy wants, for usually he has already decided that in the negative. He is interested in saving his own time and avoiding the unpleasant. He will use every possible method to bring the interview to an end quickly.

With these general considerations in mind let us examine the various methods adopted by conferees to prevent seeing people they do not wish to see and the methods they use when the interview is granted.

METHODS OF PREVENTING CONFERENCES

The secretary. When the conferee's position is such that he requires the use of a secretary, this person usually acts as a buffer between the conferee and people who want to see him. When the conferrer is known to the secretary and when it is known that the conferee wants to see the conferrer, all that he has to do is to secure an appointment, either through the secretary or the conferee himself.

The chief work of the secretary comes in when the conferrer is a stranger or when it is known that the conferee does not wish to see him. Many executives require that their secretaries secure full and complete facts about the subject of the proposed conference and bring it in to them, before they decide. In cases of this kind, much depends on how well the secretary is able to present the case of the conferrer for

him, which is rarely efficient. Some executives, in order to provide still another safeguard, require their secretaries not only to secure the information about the nature of the proposed conference but to type it and hand it to them in written form. This largely eliminates the possible favorable or unfavorable influence the conferrer may have had on the secretary, and enables the executive to have a plain statement of the facts before him.

Secretaries are usually instructed to guard against any and all possible tricks that the conferrer might use to secure an interview. And this, surely, is a legitimate function. A conferrer who must depend on tricks to secure a hearing is not worthy of one.

The writer some time ago interviewed the general sales manager of one of our insurance companies, in quest of information on speech problems, and he well remembers the difficult time he had getting the man to understand that he was not selling anything but simply wanted some information. The sales manager thought that it was a new trick to secure an interview. Secretaries are required, therefore, to obtain a simple statement of the conferrer's business, which is taken to the intended conferee. Then if he decides that he would like to have the interview he will see him. If not, the secretary usually comes back with the simple assertion, "Too busy." Busy executives cannot take the time from their work to see everyone who wishes an interview. If the intended conferrer is unable in this statement to arouse his interest, refusal is his only safeguard.

Sometimes the intended conferee, when the secretary fails to obtain some important fact, will come out to see the conferrer to get the omitted information, before granting an interview. Then the conferrer has still another opportunity to arouse his interest. If he fails again there is nothing for the conferee to do except to deny the request.

Conferees always have a final method of preventing the interview by indefinite postponement. The method usually used is to tell the conferrer that he is too busy to discuss the

matter at that time. When the conferrer is unable to cross the conferee's "deadline of interest" all of these methods are necessary to protect and conserve the conferee's time and energy.

THE CONFEREE'S GREETING

In general we may say that there are three ways of greeting the conferrer: cordial, formal, and frosty. The cordial greeting is used with those persons the conferee wishes to see. They may be either personal friends or strangers who have been able to arouse the conferee's interest either through his secretary, a telephone call, or correspondence.

The excessively cordial type of greeting, when used with a stranger seems to have a tendency, in many cases, to take the edge off of the conferrer's presentation. His reaction frequently is, "Well, here is a friendly man. This is going to be easy sailing." The result is that he often does not present his talk in as convincing and persuasive a manner as he otherwise would, if the conferee were more formal. On the other hand, a cordial reception enables some speakers to make a better presentation than they would otherwise make.

It is usually true, when the conferee gives a cordial greeting, that he is ready to give a full and fair consideration to the talk. If the conferee, therefore, wants to conserve his own time this is not the way to do it, as a cordial greeting results in a longer interview, on the whole.

When the greeting is formal and businesslike the effect is usually to force the conferrer to present his ideas briefly and in a businesslike manner.

When the conferee is frosty in manner the length of the interview will be still shorter, on the average. The frosty manner indicates an unwillingness to give much time to the conference and leads to a quicker end of it. Often the conferrer will soon withdraw and await a more favorable time for a conference.

THE CONFEREE'S RESPONSE TO PRESENTATION

The effect of silence. When the conferee deliberately keeps silent when the conferrer attempts to draw him into the discussion, the effect is to make the conferrer's task harder. The method is used only with those conferrers whom he does not wish to see, as a general rule. The conferrer always tries to make the conferee ask questions and raise objections and when he refuses to be drawn into the discussion the effect is very disconcerting. The method is very effective in assuring a brief interview.

Effect of disagreeing with the conferrer. Many conferees, when talking with people with whom they do not wish to have a conference, listen carefully to everything said in the hope that they can detect an obvious exaggeration or overstatement and then they proceed to make the most of it. This is a very effective method of disturbing the conferrer and usually leads to a shorter conference. He must be careful, however, to pick the right statement with which to disagree. If the conferrer is able to sustain his statement the conferee's position is weakened. A good rule to follow is to pick only those statements with which he believes himself to be better informed than the conferrer.

Effect of questions. Questions asked by the conferee are frequently for the purpose of forcing the conferrer into an unfavorable position, especially when his preparation has not been as thorough as it might have been. When the conferrer fails to show, early in his remarks, exactly how the subject of the conference concerns the wants of the hearer, questions by the conferee are very effective in forcing the conferrer to direct his talk more purposively. A question of this sort is often worded in the following manner: "Well, Mr. Jones, what you say is very interesting but my problems are different. How can your ideas help me?" If the conferrer is unable to answer this question to the satisfaction of the conferee, there is usually an end of it. Sometimes, too, the conferrer is not sufficiently familiar with the subject and

the conferee asks questions ostensibly to gain information. If the information is not forthcoming the position of the conferrer is weakened. And this is true regardless of whether the conferee is asking because he wants information or because he is deliberately trying to confuse. The most important use of questions from the point of view of the conferee are those which try to secure answers which will assist the conferee in finding out his interest in the subject.

Conferees will do well, when the conferrer does not make his vital interest apparent at the beginning, to ask questions immediately designed to ascertain the connection between the subject and his wants and interests. In this way he often is able to prevent excessive demands on his time.

Effect of objections. Objections are of two classes: real reasons for not believing or doing what the conferrer wishes, or excuses designed to sidetrack the conferrer. If the conferrer is not able to detect the difference he is handicapped. Excuses are often presented when the conferee does not wish to reveal the real reason for his refusal.

About a year ago the writer moved from Ohio to Illinois. During the last three months of his stay in Ohio, he was solicited by a number of salesmen who were selling different commodities and services. When the writer felt that he did not want to buy he made the following excuse: "I am not interested in buying that now. We are moving out of the state." This was an entirely new excuse to most of the salesmen and they did not know how to meet it. In most of the conferences, the interview ended with that statement. The salesmen regarded it as a reason and they did not have an answer ready. As a matter of fact it was not a reason. Yet a number of the salesmen answered it by saying, "Well, in that case, you won't need this, will you?"

Objections in the form of reasons are raised because he is not convinced that the thing he is asked to accept or do will be beneficial. He is not convinced that it will satisfy his wants.

Whether the objection be a reason or an excuse it must be

answered to the satisfaction of the conferee or the conference rarely ends successfully from the point of view of the conferrer. When his objections are not answered, the conferee loses confidence in the conferrer.

A point for conferees to remember, in every conference, is the use of the unusual objection. He may be fairly sure that the well prepared conferrer is equipped with answers to all of the common objections, likely to be presented in the interview. But he is often unprepared to deal with the unusual objection. If there is any particular problem, peculiar to his work, which he thinks the conferrer's proposal will not solve, he may say, "What you have been telling me is true but the problems you are telling me about are already solved. We are handling those matters well. Now here is what is bothering me more than anything else, and I would like to know how your proposition would help?" And then he proceeds to state the unusual problem. His whole attention at the moment is engrossed with his most important problems and all others are pushed into the background. If the conferrer is unable to show immediately how his proposal will help in the solving of these unusual problems, he is placed at a disadvantage.

THE PERSISTENT CONFERRER

It often happens that the conferee decides, early in the conference, that the proposition does not interest and he states that opinion. If the conferrer persists, after a number of these no-responses he tends to irritate the conferee and even to make him angry. When the conferee is convinced that his decision should be "No" he should state it in such a manner as to leave no doubt. State it in a positive and final manner. When this is not sufficient for the conferrer, and the conferee wishes to get back to other things, which demand his attention, he may indicate his desire to close the interview by rising, extending his hand in parting, and even by taking a few steps toward the door. He may further

indicate his desire by the use of words. If all of these methods fail, and the conferrer still is unable to interest him, he may be forced to be discourteous or even angry. In most of the cases where this happens the conferrer has brought it upon himself. He should be able to detect the conferee's responses accurately enough, so that he knows when it is wise to accede to the conferee's wishes.

HOW TO SAY "NO"

When the conferee has decided that he does not want to do the thing that he is asked to do, he should say "No" in such a manner as to leave no doubt of his rejection. It makes no difference whether the decision was formed before the interview or in the course of it. When the conferrer is unable to interest after the first "No" the second one should be stated in slightly different words, although the idea behind the rejection is the same. The conferee should not engage in any discussion, unless the conferrer is able to arouse his interest, but should say "No" each time the conferrer gives him an opportunity.

This method was used by the author recently when he was approached by a salesman who was selling a service he did not need. Early in the interview he said, "No, I am not interested." The salesman persisted and to each of his attempts to interest the answer was, "No." After a number of these negative responses the salesman understood that the decision was final and the conference ended.

SUMMARY

It is evident that the conferee must handle his end of the conference effectively, if he is to protect his own interests. From his point of view, there are two kinds of conferrers: those he is glad to see and those he does not wish to see.

In order to prevent wasting his time, it is necessary for him to adopt some method of discriminating, and refusing

conferences to some and granting conferences to others. The most common method of accomplishing this is through his secretary. He usually requires his secretary to obtain exact information about the subject of the proposed conference. On the basis of the information given by the caller he decides whether he can afford to take the time to see him. He weighs the subject proposed for the conference, against the other things which are demanding his attention.

In greeting the conferrer he may be cordial, formal, or frosty in manner. Which of these he uses depends on the relation of the parties to each other and the amount of time he feels he can give.

His response to the conferrer is influenced by his desire either to get rid of the conferrer quickly or his desire to learn all he can about the subject of the conference.

He should deal with the persistent conferrer with a firm and unyielding "No." If there is no other way to end the conference, he may be discourteous or angry, depending upon the degree of persistence.

When he decides to say "No" he should say it in a positive and final manner and should not allow himself to be drawn into the conference. When the conferrer understands that he means "No," the conference will end.

XXIV

CLOSING THE CONFERENCE

Good terminal facilities are necessary. Conferences may end in three ways. The secret of successful closing. Do not be afraid to close. Observe the conferee. The trial close. The final close. The direct method. The indirect method. Avoid a final "No." Introduce new points. Postpone decision. Later interviews. Use of literature. Suggestion in the close. Use of summary in the final close.

We are now ready to indicate the methods which should be used in closing a conference. This is the crucial part of the conference. In the close, the conferrer attempts to get the action he desires. All of his preparation for the conference, his analysis of the hearer and the subject, his successful conduct of the conference, and his answers to questions and objections will fail unless he is able, in his close, to push the conferee over the line to a final yes-response.

The success of all conferences is largely determined by the closing. It is not determined by what may have preceded it, except that everything the conferrer has said has a bearing on the success of the attempts to close. Business executives measure success, in all speech situations, by whether or not the final decision is "Yes."

GOOD TERMINAL FACILITIES ARE NECESSARY

Good terminal facilities are necessary for the success of every conference, regardless of the subject and the relations of the parties to each other. Preparation for the closing should be just as much a part of the conferrer's general preparation as that required for analyzing the hearer and the subject. Failure to be prepared for the close usually results in awkward pauses and embarrassing silences. These seriously interfere with the conferrer's success. They indicate

uncertainty and a lack of skill and create unfavorable impressions in the mind of the conferee. The conferrer should economize on his own time and that of the conferee by getting to the point of the conference quickly. Whenever he detects a point where he thinks that the conference can be successfully concluded, he should move, with sureness and positiveness, for the desired action immediately. His every word, tone, and action should count.

CONFERENCES MAY END IN THREE WAYS

It is obvious that there are three possible conclusions to any conference: the conferrer wins agreement with his proposal and secures the desired action, the conferee wins by sustaining his objections and giving a refusal, or the decision is postponed to a later time.

The first of these is, of course, the goal of the conferrer. The second or the third may be the goal of the conferee, depending on the circumstances.

From the point of view of the conferrer either of the latter two ends of the conference mean failure as far as that particular conference is concerned. In many cases postponement leaves the way open to continue the conference later, when the conferrer successfully handles it. In others, postponement means a permanent loss of agreement, for the conferee chooses this method of saying "No." He says, "I can't do that now. Come in and see me on your next trip."

When this happens the conferrer usually has lost whatever good effect his ideas may have had at the first conference and he must arouse interest again. He must begin at the beginning rather than at the point where the previous conference ended. This is especially true when the conference is postponed indefinitely. When it is postponed for a very short period, as a couple of hours or in some cases a day, the speaker is able to build on much that he has said. For longer periods he usually has to do all of his work again.

THE SECRET OF SUCCESSFUL CLOSING

The whole secret of successful closing may be summed up in the following: *Make it hard for the conferee to say "No," and easy for him to say "Yes."* Be very careful in everything you do and say and in your manner of speaking to arouse yes-responses and not no-responses. No-responses at the time of the close are almost always fatal, although they may not in some cases make it impossible to conclude the conference successfully, when they come early. Of course they should be avoided at all times during the conference, but the point we are making is that they must not come at the close. It is especially important here that all objections be answered in a manner that will completely satisfy the conferee.

Be fully confident that the conferee will agree. Indicate this confidence in every word, tone and movement of the body. If anything in your manner of speaking indicates uncertainty, about how to proceed, you make it easy for the conferee to refuse.

Choose your words carefully and utter each in a confident manner. Ask questions requiring an affirmative answer and allow no opportunity for a no-response.

DO NOT BE AFRAID TO CLOSE

Fear of the close ruins many conferences from the point of view of the conferrer and gives many conferees opportunities to say "No."

When you are able to detect the point where your judgment tells you there should be an attempt to close, immediately make the statement or the movement, which singly or together, will secure the agreement you desire. The conferrer must give every evidence of sureness, confidence, and firmness. If he hesitates in making his decision about where to close, he invites no-responses. Awkward pauses destroy much of the effect of what has preceded.

OBSERVE THE CONFEREE

We have already called your attention to the necessity of carefully observing the hearer's words, tone, and manner in the course of his presentation, in order to gain information about how his ideas are being received. At no time in the whole conference is this careful observation more necessary, than in the close. It is only by carefully observing your hearer that you can detect the proper times for attempts to close.

Many business speakers fail because they have planned, in advance, to make a presentation of a certain length and when they come to the end of that, they try to close, although the conferee may not be ready at that particular time. If the conferrer had been carefully observing the conferee he would of course have detected that fact. *Select the places for closing by detecting the points of greatest interest.*

It is often said that there is a so-called psychological moment for closing every conference. The implication is that there is just one time in the conference when it can be closed successfully. Nothing is farther from the truth. In practically all conferences there are a number of places where the conference may be closed. *There is not just one psychological moment but several.* It must be added too, that there are some conferences where not even one psychological moment develops. This happens when the conferrer is not able to arouse any vestige of interest in what he is saying. In such cases no attempt should be made to close. Postponement must be accepted as the most satisfactory conclusion for the conference.

The only way the conferrer can tell whether he ought or ought not to try to close is by observing the conferee. His only source of information, during the course of the interview, is observation. Carefully observe your hearer to detect the point or points where the closing may safely be attempted.

BE PREPARED TO CLOSE AT ANY TIME

We have just mentioned that some conferrers prepare a set presentation and then attempt to close at the end of that, regardless of whether the conferee is ready. It is evident that the conferrer cannot depend on a set talk because he must be prepared to close at any time, when his observation tells him he should. The presentation must be flexible. There may be a dozen or more points where the conferrer can close, if he thinks it desirable. When he decides to close he should immediately do and say the thing which he thinks is most likely to attain the desired result.

THE TRIAL CLOSE

Trial closes may be attempted at any time in the course of the interview, when the speaker detects what he believes to be sufficient interest. All of the attempts at closing before the final close, are classed as trial closes. It is something like the experiences we have in finding a place to park in the business districts of our cities, during the busy hours of the day. We try place after place until we find one which is suitable. One space looks good as we drive down the street but when we stop we find that there is a fire plug. At another there is a sign, "Don't park here—Shipping Entrance." At another there is not enough room to park. And so we continue until a suitable place is found. Our desires to avoid trouble with the police and scratched fenders impel us to continue our search. We make a number of trials before the car is finally parked.

In a similar manner the speaker in conference should attempt to close wherever he thinks there is an opportunity. If when he makes the attempt he finds a sign, "No Parking Here," he then continues until another opportunity is detected and then tries again. This process is continued until the conference is closed, just as the man seeking a parking space goes from place to place until he finds one. Whenever

the trial close is attempted, the speaker must be ready to avoid the danger of a "No" or of unwillingness to close by continuing his presentation until desire is created.

In addition to careful observation of the hearer, the proper time for a trial close may frequently be detected by the use of well phrased questions. Questions should not be asked directly, such as, "Are you interested in this proposition," for that invites a "No," if the conferee is not ready to close. They should rather be stated in such a manner that the conferrer may be fairly certain that the answer will be, "Yes." They are usually asked with reference to a minor point of the proposition and, as has been stated, one with which the conferee will probably agree. Questions worded in the following manner are far more likely to lead to a favorable conclusion:

"You agree that this feature will be very valuable to you, don't you?"

"It will help you to win the respect of your associates, won't it?"

"You often spend as much for the things which do not make the return this will, don't you?"

If the conferee hesitates or refuses to answer the conferrer knows that he is not yet ready for the close. If he answers, however, in a friendly spirit of agreement the chances are that a trial close may be attempted. Questions often pave the way for the close. They assist the conferrer in detecting the points of greatest interest; the so-called psychological moments when action is possible.

THE FINAL CLOSE

Any one of these trial closes may develop into the final close, if the conferee's interest has been sufficiently developed and if handled skillfully. Sometimes, however, a number of trial closes have failed and the conferrer comes to the close of the interview after having presented all of the arguments and the evidence which should influence the hearer to make a favorable decision. Then he must make

his final effort to secure a favorable decision. We must, of course, except those cases in which conferrer is not able to detect the slightest interest, when postponement is usually better than the "No" which is almost certain to follow this final effort to push him over the line.

In making the final attempt to close there are two general methods, either one of which may be used by the conferrer and sometimes both may be used. These are the direct and the indirect methods.

The direct method. This method is usually used by asking a question directly, which involves the whole proposition and which can only be answered by a "Yes" or "No." The salesman of an educational service often effectively uses this method with the following question:

"You will want to enroll, won't you?"

It must be said that this method should be used only when the conferrer is very sure of the answer. There is great danger in the method, when he is not sure of the answer, for it invites a "No," if the conferee's interest has not been sufficiently aroused. As we have already pointed out a "No" at this crucial moment of the conference is usually disastrous. In general, we may say that this form of closing should be avoided, except when the conferrer is very sure of the answer, for the reason that it makes it easy for the conferee to say "No." You will recall that early in this chapter we said that the secret of successful closing is to make it hard for the conferee to say "No" and easy for him to say "Yes." The indirect method of closing is usually more satisfactory because it makes it easier for the conferee to say "Yes."

The indirect method. The indirect method is used in two ways: by asking questions on minor points of the subject with which the conferrer is reasonably sure the conferee will agree, and by assuming that the conferee has agreed.

Let us consider the first of these. It is often used in the sale of life insurance as with every other possible persuasive subject.

The salesman says, "Would you prefer having your examination at 10 this morning or would you prefer the lunch hour?" Then regardless of the time agreed upon—the salesman goes ahead to fill out the application, asking whatever questions may be necessary.

The salesman of an educational service says, "Would you like to have this sent to your home or to your office?"

The executive who is attempting to secure agreement on a policy says, "Would it suit your own work better if we put this into operation now or shall we wait until next week?"

In all persuasive conferences, regardless of the type of speaking involved, there are many opportunities to close on minor points, in the way we have indicated.

When the speaker assumes that the conferee has agreed, without his oral "Yes," he proceeds to indicate the assumption by either his actions or his words, or both. The conference on policy may end by the conferrer saying, "It is agreed then." The salesman may proceed to write the order and push the blank across the table for the conferee's signature. He definitely indicates that he regards the conference as closed satisfactorily.

This method is usually used when the conferrer is sure the decision is "Yes," just as he makes the same assumption when he uses the direct method. It has an advantage over the direct method, however, in that it makes it easier for the conferee to say "Yes," while as has been pointed out the direct method makes it easier to say "No."

AVOID A FINAL "NO"

A final "No" should be avoided because it makes it more difficult for the conference to be reopened later. When the conferee says "No," after having all of the facts before him, as presented by the speaker, he remembers that he has made a decision and later agreement is more difficult to secure. Later it may be secured sometimes by introducing new information not known at the time of the previous confer-

ence. Except for that, later agreement is very problematical.

Here again, careful observation comes in. If the conferrer observes by the conferee's facial expression and movements and by words and tone that the answer is going to be "No," he should prevent the answer for the reason we have indicated.

Introduce new points. The first method to be used is to introduce new points of such an attention-compelling nature that the conferee's interest is developed to a high pitch. Many business speakers reserve their strongest arguments and evidence for this part of the conference because they realize that their best efforts are necessary for success. This is a good plan and if skillfully used, often leads to success.

One very successful salesman for an educational service on effective business speech introduces new points in somewhat the following manner in the close:

"Mr. Brown, I haven't told you about the uses of common ground in a conference. There are four of them: First, etc., etc."

"Mr. Brown, this service has been taken by the vice-presidents and general managers of the Steel Corporation in the Pittsburgh district. These, as you know, are very high salaried men. You will profit just as much as they have."

"Mr. Brown, have you ever had the experience of being called on for a speech unexpectedly? You know how embarrassing it is not to be able to make a good impression at such times. This service tells you exactly what to do. It gives you tested methods, to follow in gaining confidence and presenting your ideas clearly and convincingly. That alone is worth the price of the service many times over and it is just one of the tools with which it deals."

The method is equally successful in the closing of any type of persuasive speech and not alone in sales talks. The introduction of new points, in the close, takes the mind of the hearer away from the "No" he is going to say, to advantages of the proposal.

Postpone decision. When the speaker detects that the final answer is going to be "No," he should first try to close by introducing new points and then if the answer is still "No," he should attempt to postpone the decision.

Postponement is, of course, a confession of defeat as far as that particular conference is concerned, but it is better to postpone than to end the conference with a refusal. When the "No" is once uttered the task of the speaker is more difficult. When decision is postponed the speaker can take the conference up again where it was stopped, provided the intervening time is not too great.

When it is necessary to postpone, the time of the next conference should be determined and agreed on. The nearer this time is to the time of the conference then in progress, the greater the speaker's chances of success. In all persuasive speaking, it has been determined that about 60 or 65% of all successful talks are concluded in the first interview. The second interview closes from 25 to 30% more. After the second interview the percentage of success falls quite rapidly. In some types of speeches, on the third interview, it falls to 5% and less. A fourth interview has little or no value. All types of persuasive talks, successfully concluded in the fourth interview amount to less than one per cent of the total.

The conferrer should postpone decision only when there is no other way out. Experience shows that in practically all cases when decision is postponed, that the conferrer was not as well prepared as he should have been to present the subject, from the conferee's point of view. It is rarely wise to give more than two interviews on the same subject with the same man. If the conferrer cannot bring the subject vividly within the conferee's experience in two interviews, his chances of being able to do it later are very few.

LATER INTERVIEWS

As a general rule other conferences on the same subject are governed by the conferee's degree of interest in the first conference. If he is interested, he will be glad to arrange a later appointment. If he is not interested sufficiently, he will be very reluctant to do so.

We have referred several times to the fact that this later conference should come as soon after the one in progress, as it is possible to make it. The longer the intervening time the fewer the chances of securing agreement. And the longer it is the more the speaker will have to do over again. Highly successful salesmen have learned that they must go back to the same men, for later interviews, prepared to make their whole presentation over again. When time intervenes the conferee has forgotten much, perhaps all, that the speaker has told him.

It is not always possible for the conferrer to set an early date for the second conference for the reason that the conferee is not interested and wishes an indefinite postponement. In conferences in the internal organization of a business it is, however, usually possible to arrange these follow-up conferences with only a few hours intervening. The shorter the intervening time the better.

When the conferee is not interested and refuses to make a date for another conference the best the conferrer can do is to close in such a way as to make it possible for him to call later. He may say, "I shall be very glad to have you think it over, Mr. Brown, and I will call on you sometime again." When this method is used the conferrer must be prepared when he secures the second interview to introduce some new facts which he believes will interest.

USE OF LITERATURE

Very often the conferee will attempt to postpone the decision indefinitely, by requesting the conferrer to leave some literature on the subject for him to read. At other times he will request the conferrer to write out a complete statement of his proposal and mail it to him. These are but easy methods of turning down the conferrer. The speaker should guard against them. There is only one time when leaving literature may be of value, and that is when the conferee is genuinely interested. Then he may read it. If he is

not interested he will probably lay it aside and forget about it or immediately consign it to the waste basket. The same thing is true of the letter, stating the case. If he is genuinely interested it may do some good; if not it will be of no value.

Literature and statements of the case can never take the place of effective oral presentation. The very fact that the conferee asks for them is often evidence of the conferrer's ineffectiveness. The conferrer is usually better off to treat the request as an objection and immediately launch into a new idea. Show him at once how your ideas will aid in the satisfaction of his primary want, at the time, and you will not find it necessary to write statements or send literature. A good way to handle the request for literature is to say, "Mr. Brown, if I were to write this proposition out in detail it would take you more time than you can afford to give, to read the statement. My time is just as valuable as yours and I do not want to waste it writing statements, which are never read. Let us settle this matter now. Here is a very interesting feature which will do just exactly what you want done, etc." The request to settle it now should immediately be followed by a statement showing how the proposal will satisfy the conferee's wants before he has time to say "No."

SUGGESTION IN THE CLOSE

Use of the yes-response. While the yes-response should be used all of the way through the presentation, it is especially useful in the close. The conferrer, when he detects what he believes to be a point of great interest, may intensify the interest by asking a series of questions about the proposition which requires an affirmative answer. Or at least they should be so worded as to reduce the chances of a negative answer to a minimum. These are used to pave the way to the close itself. Securing a series of yes-responses at this point greatly increases the chances of closing successfully.

Making hearer act. Getting the conferee to do things for you, puts him into the proper habit for doing the final thing

you wish. There are many methods of stimulating the conferee to physical action. A common method, when figuring on a proposal, is to ask for a piece of paper. Another is to ask for something which will require that the conferee get up and walk to another room. Another is to carelessly drop a pencil in such a way that the conferee will pick it up. Anything which makes the conferee act, just before the close, makes it easy for him to agree in the close itself.

Personality. At no time in the interview is the suggestive influence of personality more important, than in the close. The conferrer should indicate by everything that he says and does that he has great confidence in both himself and in his proposal. His personality should radiate enthusiasm. He should indicate that he expects the conferee to agree.

USE OF SUMMARY IN THE FINAL CLOSE

A summary of the main points of the subject is often very useful in the final close. By main points we mean not those the conferrer has determined on in advance, necessarily, but those regarded by the conferee as important. The summary should be therefore a restatement of the points of greatest interest to the conferee. This tends to create a favorable reaction which carries over into the close itself. It causes a series of yes-responses, which are usually unexpressed orally, and paves the way for the close.

SUMMARY

Good terminal facilities are necessary to close conferences successfully.

The conferrer as a part of his preparation must be ready to close whenever a favorable opportunity presents itself.

The secret of successful closing is to make it hard for the conferee to say "No," and easy for him to say "Yes."

There are three ways in which the conference may end:

the conferrer may win, the conferee may win, or the decision may be postponed.

Fear of the close restrains many conferrers from making the attempt. They are afraid of a final "No." They should close, when they detect the proper time, with sureness and firmness.

In order to know when to close, the conferrer must carefully observe the conferee. The points of greatest interest, which are the so-called psychological moments, can only be detected in this way.

Be prepared to close at any time, because it is very difficult to determine in advance exactly where the close should be introduced. The presentation must be flexible.

Whenever points of great interest are detected the conferrer should attempt to close. These attempts are called trial closes.

When the conferrer comes to the end of the interview and the end of his presentation without closing, he must attempt the final close which he thinks will push the conferee over the line. There are two methods: the direct and the indirect.

A final "No" should be avoided because it makes it more difficult to reopen the conference at a later date. They are avoided by introducing new points and by postponing the conference.

Later interviews should be arranged as near the time of the conference, which is in progress, as it is possible to make them. The nearer the second conference the greater the chances of success and the farther away it is the less the chances of success.

Literature of any kind and statements of the proposition should be used only when the conferee's interest has been aroused. Otherwise these are methods for "easy turn-downs."

Suggestion is used in the close by getting the conferee to make a series of yes-responses, by getting him to do things for you and by the use of personality.

A summary of the points of greatest interest, for the con-

feree, often accomplishes the same result as the series of yes-responses. It creates a favorable impression and makes it easy for the conferee to say "Yes" in the close itself.

XXV

A CONFERENCE ANALYZED

Memorandum of an interview between Harrington and Alderson. Analysis.

As a final guide to the reader in conference speaking we are including here the complete record of a sales conference. Not only are we presenting the conference itself, but we are making an analysis of it, based upon the principles we have explained.

MEMORANDUM OF A SALES INTERVIEW BETWEEN HARRINGTON AND ALDERSON [1]

"Picture" of John B. Alderson.[2] Wholesale Shoe Merchant.
Pittsburgh, Pa.
Firm Rating—$100,000. Personal Wealth, $500,000.
Age—About 50.
Married. Has two children; daughter 18, son 10.
Director of the Faithful Trust Company, and Round Tube Works.
Member of Episcopal Church and very active in church work.
Member of House Committee, P—Golf Club.
Member D—Club, Chamber of Commerce, and interested in Salvation Army and School for the Blind.
Native Pennsylvanian; has lived in Pittsburgh since youth.
Has traveled extensively in America and Europe. Spends summer at seashore and is said to be a great fisherman.
Best chess player in his club.
Is a collector of autographs of famous persons and is said to have a complete collection of autographs of the Presidents of the United States.

---

[1] This interview was prepared by Griffin M. Lovelace and published in *The Psychology of Selling Life Insurance* by E. K. Strong, Jr. It is used here with the permission of Harper & Brothers.

[2] "Picture" is used here in the same sense as that in which we have used the word, "analysis." If the reader will turn back to Chapter XIX of Part III he will notice how these facts fit into our analysis chart.

Said to be easy of access, but very hard to get an interview with if he is not already interested in the matter to be submitted.
Reported as courteous, even tempered, dignified, but firm and quick in his decisions.
One of his clerks says Wednesday or Thursday afternoon is the best time to see him.

Outline of Plan to Submit to Mr. John B. Alderson. "Trust" plan; $100,000. Ordinary life basis. Entire sum to be held by the company at his death, interest-income, approximately $4,500 a year, being payable entirely to his wife except that when the daughter reaches twenty-one and the boy eighteen, each shall then receive an income of approximately $1,000 a year. At mother's death, the balance of $2,500 to be paid share and share alike to the daughter and son. At age thirty the boy is to receive $50,000 paid in a lump sum. The daughter will draw the income on $50,000 during her lifetime, and at her death the principal sum will be paid to her children if she has any. If she is without issue, her interest shall revert to her brother, if living.

Interview. Harrington calls on Alderson on a Wednesday afternoon. He enters the store and starts for the office, which is in the rear. A clerk asks what he "can do for him." He says he wants to see Mr. Alderson, and passes on to the office, which he enters without hindrance. Alderson, whom he knows by sight, is seated at a mahogany desk, talking with an employee who is showing him some papers. Harrington waits at a considerable distance from the desk but not too near the door. He is glad of a moment to look about him. The furniture is mahogany, but quite modern, with the exception of a chair, a combback Windsor, which is manifestly a very old one.

Photo portraits of Washington, Lincoln, and Roosevelt link up with what he has heard of Mr. Alderson's interest in the Presidents and give a clue to his political tendencies. A golf bag stands in a near-by corner, but the initials T. W. P. show that it does not belong to Alderson. On the desk is a photograph of a young boy in a bathing suit standing on the gunwale of a dory.

Harrington has a fair knowledge of old furniture. He crosses to the Windsor chair and examines it carefully, which act is not lost on Alderson.[3]

The employee leaves the office and Mr. Alderson turns to greet his caller.

ALDERSON: "Good afternoon."

[3] The use of the chair in the introduction to this interview is natural under the circumstances, but, of course, is not necessary. It is often helpful, however, to make use of a man's hobby if it can be done in a natural way.

HARRINGTON: "How do you do, sir? You are Mr. Alderson, are you not?"

ALDERSON: "Yes."

HARRINGTON: "Mr. Alderson, my name is Harrington. I hope you will pardon my curiosity in examining your old combback Windsor, but I noticed that it is a particularly fine piece and doubtless a very old one, probably from New England."

ALDERSON: "You are right. That chair was made by my great-great-grandfather. He was a sea captain in Gloucester, Massachusetts, and a very good amateur cabinetmaker. When he was at home, between voyages, he used to make furniture in his workshop back of the old house. At home I have a number of pieces made by him."

HARRINGTON: "How fortunate you are. I am very much interested in old furniture, but I don't see very much of it. I haven't inherited any. I have a few pieces I got in Philadelphia—an old Pembroke table, a chest of drawers, a small Heppelwhite sideboard, and a pair of knife and fork cases. But I have several books on old furniture and I like the pictures of the early New England furniture very much. This Windsor chair of yours is the first piece I have ever really seen."

Alderson replied and talks at length about old New England furniture; shows Harrington an antique furniture book he has just bought. They spend at least ten minutes in this way. (Note that Harrington had not noted anything about Alderson's old-fashioned furniture hobby in the "picture," but as soon as he saw the Windsor chair he realized that here was probably a common interest and the easiest one through which to begin to dig into Alderson's associated interests.)

Suddenly Alderson "comes to."

ALDERSON: "But I am taking your time. You wanted to see me."

HARRINGTON: "Of course, but I am very glad to have had you tell me so much about your furniture. I am deeply interested. May I sit down a minute?"

ALDERSON: "Certainly. Have a chair." (Harrington draws the chair close to Alderson's desk and sits.)

HARRINGTON: "I want to talk to you about a completion plan."

ALDERSON: "To complete what?"

HARRINGTON: "Anything you can't finish yourself—when all your plans must come to an end or be carried on by someone else."

ALDERSON: "Life insurance?"

HARRINGTON: "Life insurance—plus!"

ALDERSON: "Plus what?"

HARRINGTON: "Plus corporate administration."

ALDERSON: "What do you mean?"

HARRINGTON: "Mr. Alderson, you believe in corporate trusteeship as against individual trustees, don't you?"

ALDERSON: "Certainly."

HARRINGTON: "You believe that the corporate trusteeship gives greater safety of principal, certainty of interest, and service to the beneficiary of the trust than is afforded under individual trusteeship, don't you?"

ALDERSON: "Of course. But what has all this to do with life insurance? I don't *need* any; don't *want* any; am not going to *buy* any."

HARRINGTON: "Then we are in absolute agreement. For *I* don't think you need any and I don't want to *sell* you any—*as such.* But I would like to have *your opinion* on a certain feature of corporate trusteeship.

"To illustrate my point in advance: In order to establish a trust valued at $100,000, somebody must put up $100,000 in cash, or real estate, or stocks, or bonds, or mortgage bonds, or a combination of these. The trust company may find some poor investments. Unless prevented by the nature of the trust, it sells them at the best possible prices and puts the money into good investments. It gets the best interest rates it can without taking undue risks as to principal. But is it a function of the trust company or is it within its province to guarantee the principal against all hazards and to guarantee a minimum rate of interest?"

ALDERSON: "No, certainly not. But I don't see what you are driving at and I don't want any life insurance. Frankly, you are wasting your time, Mr. Harrington, and without meaning to be uncivil, I may add that I am very busy this afternoon." (He rises as if to dismiss the salesman.)

HARRINGTON: (Starts to rise, but pauses on the edge of his chair, puts his hand in his pocket, and draws out a coin, concealing it in his closed fist, which he holds out.) "Excuse me just a moment, Mr. Alderson. I want to ask you just one question." (Slight pause.) "Can you tell me what I have in my hand?"

ALDERSON: "Why—no, of course not!"

HARRINGTON: (Opens his hand.) "Can you tell me now?"

ALDERSON: "Certainly."

HARRINGTON: "A fifty-cent piece. And why is it you can tell me now what I have in my hand and a moment ago you couldn't? Simply because you have seen inside my hand. You have looked into it. Won't you give me ten minutes and take a

look into my proposition?—otherwise you won't really know what it is. Then, if you are not interested, I'll go promptly." (Looks at his watch.)

ALDERSON: (Smiles, and looks at his watch, and sits down.) "All right, I'll give you ten minutes, but no more."

HARRINGTON: "Then I must work fast and you won't interrupt me, will you?"

ALDERSON: "No. Go ahead."

HARRINGTON: "We will have to go back a little. You had just confirmed my understanding that it is not the function or the province of a trust company to guarantee either principal or interest. But wouldn't it be to the advantage of the person making the trust and of the beneficiary if the principal and a certain rate of interest were guaranteed?"

ALDERSON: "Obviously, but it can't be done. Evidently you don't understand the trust business, Mr. Harrington. Let me explain the principles of the trust business to you."

HARRINGTON: (Looks at his watch, and smiles.) "Time out?"

ALDERSON: "Yes, time out." (He discourses for ten or fifteen minutes on the business of trust companies. Harrington listens attentively, glad to have Alderson talking. After awhile Alderson stops and says): "Well, that gives you a bird's-eye view of the trust business, Mr. Harrington."

HARRINGTON: "And it is not only informing but most interesting, Mr. Alderson. I'd like to know more about the trust business. I'd like to get something to read on the subject."

ALDERSON: "I'll be glad to introduce you to our trust officer; he has some things he could let you read."

HARRINGTON: "Good. I'll take the liberty of reminding you of that. I'm a great believer in the trust companies and I recommend to my clients that they "trustee" their real and personal property whenever I get an opportunity. I am really a booster for the trust companies. But some of my clients ask me the same question I asked you a few minutes ago."

ALDERSON: "What was that?"

HARRINGTON: "Whether or not the trust companies would guarantee the principal and a minimum rate of interest?"

ALDERSON: "Oh, well, what is the sense in that question anyhow?"

HARRINGTON: "Well, I'm going to explain that. It is really the most important part of my proposition, save one. You see, the life insurance company I represent acts in somewhat the same capacity as a trustee also. No competition with the trust com-

panies, for it does not handle ordinary estates. It only manages the proceeds of its policy contracts in order to prevent loss and waste of the principal and to make sure that a man's purpose of providing a living for his family is carried out. But under our plan the life insurance money is simply held as a part of the company's general invested funds. It is mingled with the general funds. No individual investment is made. Therefore, there is no risk or loss of the principal. Any losses the company may sustain come out of the general fund, and as the company carries a big surplus to provide against contingencies, there is always money enough to provide in full for the company's obligations.

"A man dies and leaves a policy of $100,000 and whenever it is called upon to settle, the company must be able to pay in cash. But the company will hold the principal for the beneficiary and pay interest as long as may have been specified. Three per cent interest is guaranteed. But the company pays a surplus interest. At present it is one and a half per cent, making a total of four and a half per cent."

ALDERSON: "Four and a half per cent is not large."

HARRINGTON: "As you are a bank director, I do not need to ask you why municipal bonds pay about four per cent to four and a half per cent, while stocks pay seven per cent to ten per cent. We know it is simply a question of safety. When you buy a security which is practically guaranteed, the rate is always low, isn't it?"

ALDERSON: "Yes."

HARRINGTON: "And when you are gone you would probably rather have your family depend on four and a half per cent investment than on six, eight, or ten per cent stocks. Now these are my first points—the principal and the minimum interest are guaranteed. But the big point is this: when a trust is established in the usual way, with stocks and bonds and real estate of, say, $100,000, the estate must have the value of $100,000, mustn't it?"

ALDERSON: "Of course."

HARRINGTON: "Well, you can see that, in this respect, our proposition is wonderful. Instead of having to put up an estate of $100,000 on which your beneficiary will have to pay taxes, after you're gone, you pay the taxes or premiums while you are here and the company puts up the $100,000 when you're gone. The company creates the principal, guarantees it, and guarantees a minimum interest rate. Really, Mr. Alderson, is there anything else in the world like it?"

ALDERSON: "No, I guess there isn't. It really is a remarkable proposition, after all. Oh, I haven't any objections to life insur-

ance—I really think it is a fine thing, but I have all I need, together with my other estate."

HARRINGTON: "I'm glad to hear you say that you believe in life insurance, Mr. Alderson. I really felt sure you did. In fact, practically everybody does, these days. Mr. Roosevelt (pointing to his picture) was well insured. He had a considerable estate, but he carried a large amount of life insurance. By the way, here is a fine comment he made on life insurance (taking a pamphlet from his pocket).

"Mr. Alderson, I want to tell you a little secret—a little professional secret (pointing to a picture on Alderson's desk). There's a picture of a manly-looking lad standing on the gunwale of a dory; has on his bathing suit; having the time of his young life enjoying his vacation at the seashore. Well, I found out something about that boy before I came in to see you. I know some people whom you know, too, and casually I asked some questions about you and your family, not out of curiosity—no, but because I wanted to see if there was any way in which I might be able through my company to be of service to you and your family. Don't think I've been prying into your family affairs—I haven't. All I know I'm going to lay on the table now in connection with a plan I've been shaping to fit your situation as I saw it.

"You and Mrs. Alderson have, I am told, two children, who are a source of satisfaction to you, as both of them have done you great credit. The lad is still quite young, but already highly regarded in his school, a good athlete, a true sportsman, who gives every promise of being all you could wish him to be. You, no doubt, think often of this boy's future, of his career at college, of the pride with which in old age you will look upon him as he stands in your place in the more active life of the community. You would do anything in the world and are doing all you can to build a foundation for that boy's career. If you live, you will complete your plans and no doubt his career will work out as you intend. You have a daughter, popular in her set, both for her personality and for her achievements. You are building for her, too. In a way, perhaps you are planning even more for her material welfare than for the boy's, for you know that a self-reliant boy can go it alone if he has to. But provision for the daughter's future requires greater foresight. You want to provide for her for life, no matter what may happen. She will probably marry and marry well. If you live to see her married and settled in life, she may have no further need for your help. But in the intimate relations which I necessarily enjoy with my clients I have found that fathers have a very tender spot in their hearts

for their daughters. To them their daughters are always their little girls, even though married and themselves the mothers of other little girls. I find fathers arranging for guaranteed incomes not only to provide for the daughter unmarried, but for the daughter as a wife, with a certain independent income coming from father, all her own, to spend without feeling any possible hesitation as to how, as she might feel if her husband had given it to her.

"And I haven't forgotten Mrs. Alderson, either. I've worked out a beautiful little triangular proposition that will enable you to complete your plans as to the future of your wife, your daughter, and your boy.

"In case of your premature death, our company will credit your wife and children with $100,000 with the following service, assuming the present total interest rate of four and one-half per cent to be earned and paid at such time." (Writes on a slip of paper as he talks.)

"Value of estate, $100,000.

"Total income, $4,500, *if present interest basis continues.*

"Payable to wife for life, $2,500 a year.

"Payable to daughter, $1,000 a year after age twenty-one, her share going to your wife until such time.

"Payable to your son, $1,000 a year, beginning with the first year in college, we'll say at age eighteen or nineteen or such other age as you will indicate, his share to go to your wife until such time. At your wife's death, her income to be divided between your son and your daughter, but at age thirty, or later, following the death of your wife, your son is to receive $50,000 in cash. Your daughter, however, will receive her share as an income for life and at her death $50,000 will be paid in cash to her children, if any, or in such other way as you may designate."

"That is your completion plan. It adds to your life program the one thing lacking—a definiteness and an absolute certainty; a minimum protection, the last intrenchment against want and hardship; the guaranty of a living for your wife, no matter what happens; the certainty of a degree of independence for your daughter, if she marries, and a minimum living if she doesn't; a guarantee of an education for the boy, and a help while he is getting started in business no matter what may happen. This $1,000 a year, if by any chance it should be all, would see him through college, and afterward, together with his initial earnings, would be enough to enable him to maintain a respectable position in his

old circle. He couldn't collect old furniture or autographs of famous men on such an income, but you know what it might mean for him. It might be the difference between a good start and a poor one. But eventually there will be $50,000 to help him in his business. This might be the financial aid that would finally make his business a genuine success. To your daughter it might just be the margin between happy independence and unhappy dependence. To your wife, as to the children, it would be the guarantee of the fulfillment of your lifetime purpose to make the future safe for them under any and all circumstances if anything should happen to your investment. Of course, we don't expect anything to happen. But what isn't guaranteed is uncertain and this proposition is a safe hedge against all uncertainty."

ALDERSON: "Well, I'll tell you, Mr. Harrington, that is interesting. It does serve to complete one's plans by furnishing a certain guarantee, in case the bottom falls out. But I've got things pretty well arranged. I already carry $25,000 of life insurance. I haven't wasted my money. I have saved and I have prospered in investments. I don't mind telling you the income of my estate at four and a half per cent interest would be several times the income you have been talking about. So, while your proposition is a good one, I don't believe I need it. I'll leave my estate in trust and it will be reasonable sure. The percentage of loss on estates left in trust is negligible."

HARRINGTON: "You are absolutely right, Mr. Alderson. All you say is true; though I should like to point out this fact: that if there should be only one estate failure in twenty years and that failure should happen to be in the estate you had left to your family, the low percentage of failures wouldn't help your wife and your daughter and your boy. That loss would have to fall on some individuals. It might just as well fall on your heirs as on any others. The chances are perhaps nearly even as between the beneficiaries of various estates. Now you want something that is certain; that eliminates uncertainty. You want a minimum provision on which there isn't even a small chance of loss. In my proposition the risk is eliminated by the mingling of the insurance estate money with the general corporate funds of our company. Another point: it is always the unexpected that happens. You and I can sit here and figure out all the things that might happen and set them down and in twenty years from now none of them has happened. But something else has happened which we didn't figure on. That's just what I want to insure you against. You can see, can't you, that what I want to sell you isn't so much life insurance as it is a surety bond for the absolute

completion of your life plans for your wife, your daughter, and your boy without any possibility of failure? Isn't that a big thing for any man to accomplish?"

ALDERSON: "Yes, it is."

HARRINGTON: "And isn't this a wonderful way in which to accomplish such a big thing? The principal guaranteed, a minimum interest income guaranteed, absolute security which can be had in no other way. And instead of putting up the estate on which your beneficiary will pay taxes, you pay taxes now and the company puts up the estate. One hundred thousand dollars in cash, held practically in trust, and administered as you may direct. What a fine thing to know—not merely to believe or hope—but to know that at least a living is assured beyond any doubt to your wife and your daughter and the boy. You have already built up a big estate which, if all goes well, will provide for them handsomely. It takes only the safety of the insurance trust fund to guarantee the completion of your plans for the future of your loved ones, a living for your wife, a lifetime independence for your daughter, and an education and a good start in life for the boy."

(Pause—neither speaks for some time. Harrington controls his impulse to speak as the pause seems to grow unbearably long. Finally Alderson speaks.)

ALDERSON: "How much will this proposition cost me?"

HARRINGTON: "Just what is your age, Mr. Alderson?"

ALDERSON: "Fifty-one."

HARRINGTON: "Strictly speaking, Mr. Alderson, I should be wrong if I said it would *cost* you so much. You know enough about life insurance to know that a sinking fund or a savings account is really built up out of the premiums deposited, and that many men who need a good, safe, and regular savings plan take out life insurance for this purpose only. Your premium on this proposition (ordinary life basis) will be about four and three-quarters per cent at the beginning, but will be rapidly reduced to three and a half per cent and less if we are able to continue the scale of dividends we are now paying."

ALDERSON: "Four thousand seven hundred and fifty dollars."

HARRINGTON: "Approximately. But, as I said, if our present dividend scale continues, your rate will gradually decrease from about four and three-quarters per cent to a much lower rate. And, as you know, you aren't spending money. You are investing in the least uncertain security you have ever considered, and whenever you die this will probably prove to be the most profitable investment you have ever made for your family. But even if you

were spending the money, you know you would not count the cost, if you got the satisfaction you desired.

"What greater satisfaction could you have than the knowledge that you had added to your estate this reserve income which no disaster to your present estate could affect in any way, which would *guarantee* the fulfillment of your plans for your wife, your daughter, and your son?"

(Lays out the application blank.) "You are fifty-one years old. What is the date of birth?"

(Alderson answers Harrington's questions. The application is filled out and Alderson signs his name without a word when Harrington passes him the fountain pen.)

HARRINGTON: "Do you want to pay this by check, Mr. Alderson?"

ALDERSON: "Now?"

HARRINGTON: "Yes. That is the only way in which I can bind the insurance."

ALDERSON: "I never paid for any insurance in advance before."

HARRINGTON: "Then the other agents dropped one link in the chain of your protection. They didn't make it immediate. You always bind your fire insurance, don't you?"

ALDERSON: "Yes, but I don't have to pay cash in advance."

HARRINGTON: "No, of course not, but the fire insurance company can cancel if it sees fit, can it not? Fire and life insurance are different. If we are going to bind for immediate as well as permanent protection, we must have the check in advance. (Explains conditions of binding and takes out his rate book.) The exact amount is $4,746."

Alderson calls a clerk, has a check written payable to the Hearthstone Life Insurance Company, and hands it to Harrington, who detaches a conditional advance-premium binding receipt from the application, signs it, and gives it to Alderson.

ANALYSIS

In planning this conference, Harrington had made, first, as complete an analysis of Alderson as he could. He studied his man. Only two things of any importance were used in the conference which were not a part of his analysis. One was his discovery that Alderson was interested in old furniture. He used this information in opening the conference and placing it on a cordial, friendly basis. The second was

the picture of Alderson's boy which was on his desk. This was used to make his remarks more pointed. Except for these two points, every factor of importance had been carefully planned in advance.

Harrington knew that Alderson was a bank officer and he decided that the best method of approach was through his interest in banking and particularly in the trust department. Note that he talked to Alderson in terms of one of his primary interests. The reader will recall that this is the best method of making any subject familiar. He was prepared to show that his proposal was superior in some respects to the service offered by a bank's trust department. He adapted his proposal all of the way through to Alderson's needs. He was prepared for every objection which was advanced. He was prepared to secure Alderson's attention and hold it until he had time to present his proposition.

With these comments about his preparation let us briefly analyze his procedure, as he conducted the conference. In the first place he came for the interview at the time when he had been informed that Mr. Alderson could be seen most advantageously. When he arrived at the building, he went directly to Alderson's office. Suppose when the clerk asked him, "What can I do for you," he had stopped to explain his business and had tried to secure an interview through the clerk. The chances are that he would have failed. He went directly to the office of the man he wanted to see. He entered in a manner to indicate that he had business there. He took a position far enough away from the door to indicate that he expected to stay until his business was concluded.

While Alderson was talking to an employee, he quickly surveyed the room and noticing the combback chair, thought at once that it might furnish an opportunity to open the conference on a secondary interest and place it on a friendly basis. Note how he handled this part of the opening in order to get Alderson to talk about his secondary interest. Harrington had found nothing in his analysis which would have given him an opportunity to open with anything except an

immediate statement of purpose. He used the method of rapidly surveying the room to find something, on which to open, with the happy result indicated.

When they came to the opening of the main part of the conference, notice how Harrington phrased his opening statement in such a way as to state his purpose and to arouse Alderson's interest. The main part of the conference is opened with the following:

HARRINGTON: "I want to talk to you about a completion plan."
ALDERSON: "To complete what?"
HARRINGTON: "Anything you can't finish yourself—when all your plans must come to an end or be carried on by someone else."
ALDERSON: "Life insurance?"
HARRINGTON: "Life insurance—plus!"
ALDERSON: "Plus what?"
HARRINGTON: "Plus corporate administration."
ALDERSON: "What do you mean?"

When Alderson guesses that Harrington wants to sell him insurance, notice how Harrington comes back in a manner to further arouse his interest. When Alderson, in the final statement of opening, says, "What do you mean?" the conference is launched.

A little later, when Alderson says, "I don't need any; don't want any; am not going to buy any," notice how Harrington seems to agree with him and then says, "But I would like to have your opinion on a certain feature of corporate trusteeship." This gave him an opportunity to tell more about his proposition.

Notice the method used by Alderson in his attempt to terminate the interview and the method used by Harrington to force Alderson's attention to the whole proposition. He made use of *the striking* and carried his point. He knew from his analysis that Alderson was quick to form opinions and he had the coin method ready to forestall an early closing of the interview.

Just past the coin episode, note how Harrington permits

Alderson to talk about the trust business. He knew when to keep quiet. At the end of Alderson's discussion of the trust business, note how Harrington brings the conference back to the subject by, "But some of my clients ask me the same question I asked you a moment ago."

ALDERSON: "What was that?"
HARRINGTON: "Whether or not the trust companies would guarantee the principal and a minimum rate of interest."

Harrington's detailed plan and his method of presenting it caught Alderson's attention. He had studied the problem and worked the whole thing out in advance.

He answered all of the objections raised by Alderson in such a way as to completely satisfy the conferee.

Near the end of the conference he made effective use of silence when he gave Alderson a chance to think about the proposition. At the end of the pause, when Alderson said, "How much will this proposition cost me?" he was sold. From that point, after answering the objection about the price, which he detected before it was uttered, he assumed that the answer was, "Yes."

The conferrer made good use of the yes-response throughout the conference. At only two points were there decided, "No's." These came when Alderson said that he did not need any; did not want any; was not going to buy any and when he attempted to terminate the interview. In both of these cases, Harrington was able to master the situation. He made good use of suggestion and imagery. He followed tested suggestions for planning a sales talk.

Students of business speech can learn a great deal about successful conference speaking by the study of the records of conferences, such as the one we have presented here.

INDEX

INDEX

A

Acceptance, speeches of, 12, 224, 255, 273
  value, 82
Acknowledgment, speeches of, 224
Action-assisting, making answer, 324
Activity level, influence of hearer's, 29-30, 264
After-dinner speaking, 12
  speech, an example, 231-234
  speeches, 227-234
    general characteristics, 227
  types of, 227
Age, influence of, 16-20, 263
Allport, F. H., 20
Analysis, applying it to conferences, 257-269
  chart, 267-268
  importance of, 15
  of a sales interview, 362-365
  plan for, 266-268
Analyzing the hearer, 15-50
Anderson, 140
Animation, 86, 87, 299
Answering calls, 240
Appearance, influence of speaker's, 54
  in oral presentation, 88
Arguments, meeting opposing, 197
Artistic or esthetic intelligence, 21
Associations, 8, 115-119
Atlases and maps, 108
Attention, 33
  compelling it to wants, 41-50
  definition of, 33
  fluctuation of, 34
  getting introductions, 77
  types of, 34
    effortless, 34
    involuntary, 34
    voluntary, 34
Audiences and suggestions, 57
  of average intelligence, 23
  of high intelligence, 22
  of low intelligence, 22
Auditory imagery, 62
Authority and interest, 35
Average intelligence, 20

B

Barton, Bruce, 76, 168
Bearing during the talk, 90
Biographical material, 109
Bowers, Claude G., 238
Breathing, a great vocal asset, 94
Brevity, 227, 239
Building confidence, 175
Burnett, J., 148
Business
  effective speech in, 3-14
  facts, sources of, 101-121
    using the sources of, 274
    see also Sources of business facts
  guides, special, 106
  order of in a meeting, 243
  organization and speaking, 6
  speaking, training for, 8
  speeches, types of, 11
    types of in conference, 254
  talks, types of, 125-245

C

Candee, A. H., 148, 153
Card catalogue, 105
Chairman, discretion of, 244
  duties of, 242
Chart, for analysis, 267-268
  example of in explanation, 133, 135, 138, 139
  in oral reports, 151, 152
  layout for a talk, 66
  use of, 146
Classroom practice in discussion, 199
Clear thinking, 5, 294
Clearness in reports, 143
  value of, 125
Close, be prepared to close at any time, 341
  direct method in, 343
  do not be afraid to, 339
  final, 342
  indirect method in, 343
  suggestion in, 348
  trial, 341
  use of summary in, 349
Closing, secret of closing successfully, 339
  the conference, 337-351
Common ground, use of, 292
Communication, sense of, 83
Communicative, how to become, 84
Community groups, 24
Comparisons, 75
Compelling hearer's attention to his wants, 265
Completeness in reports, 144
Conclusion, 68, 79, 94, 128, 148, 167, 198
Concrete, the influence of, 49
Concreteness in reports, 144
Conducting a meeting, 242-245
Conferee, the, 252, 275
  do not assume that he will refuse, 325
  greeting the, 278
  handling the discourteous, 301
  observation of, 340
  securing information about him, 258
  treating him as an equal, 324
Conferee's greeting, 331
  response, 327-336
Conference, analyzed, 352-365
  closing it, 337-351
  conferrer's conduct of, 277-326
  definition of, 250
  main, 278
  manner of speaking in, 252
  opening it, 279
  opening on secondary and momentary interests, 285
  personal, 12, 249-365
  planning of, 270-276

Conference speaking, importance of, 249-256
nature of, 249-256
preparation for, 251
Conferences, applying analysis to, 257-269
may end in three ways, 338
methods of preventing, 329
use of questions in, 287
Conferrer, the, 252, 270-275
effect of disagreeing with, 332
the persistent, 334
Conferrer's conduct of the conference, 277-326
knowledge of the conferee, 258
manner of speaking, 293, 324
Conferrers, two kinds of, 327
Confidence, 177
Contrasting opposing arguments, 194
Controversy to be avoided in speeches of courtesy, 222
Conversation, 4
Conwell, Russell H., 75
Corporations, 119
Coudert, Frederick R., 231, 232
Courtesy pays, 240
speeches of, 222-226
Critical information, lack of in young, 17

D

Dawes, Charles G., 75
Decision, postponement of, 345
Definition of terms, 194
Desires, 36-40
see Wants
Dictionaries, 108
Direct method in the close, 343
Direct suggestion, using it, 57
Discussion, defined, 192
example of, 199-207
nature of, 192
preparation of, 192
Discussions of policy, 191-207, 255, 272, 323
Duryea, J. B., 260, 261, 262, 313, 319, 320

E

Economic groups, 24
Effective oral presentation, 82-98
speech in business, 3-14
use of silence, 303
Effortless attention, 34, 281
Encyclopedias, general, 107
special business, 107
Engineer's testimony, 3
Enthusiasm, 6, 298
Evidence, valid, 196
Exaggeration, 229
Examination reports, 141
Experiment, willingness to in young, 18
Experimentation, as a source of facts, 103
Expert opinion, 76
Explanations and instructions, 125-139
example, speech of, 129-139
Extempore method, using the, 96, 97
External conditions, speaker's control of, 266
influence of, 31
Eye-directness, 83, 84

F

Facts, kind of needed, 263-265
need of, 99-101
Familiar, the, 43, 229
and the use of suggestion, 58
how to make vivid, 48
Family groups, 23
Faults to avoid, 128
Fear, to avoid, 38
Final close, 342
Finding material, 99-121
Fiske, Haley W., 211
Freshwater, Eagle, 77
Friends, to have, 38
Fundamentals in oral presentation, 83, 298

G

Geniality, how much to show in greeting, 90
George, Lloyd, 62
Good-will speeches, 208-221, 255, 273
an example of, 211-221
opportunities for, 208
planning, 209
Government reports and documents, 119-120
Greeting the conferee, 278
the conferrer, 331
the hearer, 89
Groups, influence of, 23-25, 263
Gustatory imagery, 63

H

Hart, Hugh D., 78
Health, importance of, 87
Healthy, to be, 36
Hearer, adaptation to, 92, 126
analysis of, 15-50
carrying him along, 93
compelling his attention to his wants, 265
is he quick to adopt new ideas? 264
making him act, 348
observation of, 289
Hearer's activity level, influence of, 29-30, 264
knowledge of the subject, 264
known opinions, influence of, 25-29, 263
about the occasion, 28
about the speaker, 25, 56
about the subject, 27
pride in organization, use of in inspirational speaking, 177
wants and interests, 33-50, 264
Hearers of average intelligence, 23
of high intelligence, 22
of low intelligence, 22
Helps in analysis, 195
High intelligence, 20
Hill, Everett W., 180
History and origin, 194
Hopes and aspirations in suggestion, 59
How to prepare a complete advertising program, 129
Humor, use of, 300

I

Ideals of Rotary, 180-190
Ideas, giving them acceptance value, 82
is the hearer quick to adopt new? 264

main, 67, 71, 72, 73, 74, 127, 145, 163, 166, 193, 194, 195
Images, types of, 61-63
auditory, 62
gustatory, 63
motor, 62
olfactory, 63
tactile, 63
thermic, 63
use of, 63
visual, 62
Imitate or to differ from others, 39
Immediate statement of purpose, 281
Indirect method in the close, 343
Industrial arts index, 106
Influence, of groups, 23-25
community, 24
economic, 24
family, 23
political, 24
religious, 24
sectional, 23
social, 24
of hearer's activity level, 29-30
of hearer's opinions about the speaker in suggestion, 56
of intelligence, 20-23
of momentary interests, 46-48
of primary interests, 44
of secondary interests, 45
of speaker's appearance, 54
of speaker's authority in suggestion, 55
of speaker's intelligence in suggestion, 54
of speaker's prestige, 56
of speech in suggestion, 55
of the concrete, 49
of the hearer's known opinions, 25-29
about the occasion, 28
about the speaker, 25
about the subject, 27
of the speaker's age in suggestion, 53
of the striking, 49
Informative talks, particular objections in, 321
Inspirational speech, 12, 174-190, 254, 323
definition of, 174
example of, 180-190
framework of, 176
function of, 174-175
nature of, 174
subjects, recent, 176
Instruction, need of in business speech, 8
Instructions, 254, 270
and explanations, 125-139
and orders, 11
Intelligence, 263
average, 23
definition of, 20
high, 22
high, average, low, 20
influence of, 20-23, 54
low, 22
types of, 20-21
artistic or esthetic, 21
mechanical, 21
social, 21
verbal, 21
Interest, and the use of authority, 35
and wants, 33-50
definition of, 34
momentary, 283, 285
primary, 21, 44
secondary, 283, 285
Interestingness, 237
Internal efficiency, 7
Interview conduct, 88
securing it, 275
Interviews and letters as sources of facts, 103
later, 346
Introduction, 68, 128, 147, 166, 222
speeches of, 12, 255, 273
Introductions, attention-getting, 77
Involuntary attention, 34

K

Ketcham, Victor Alvin, 64, 192, 293, 295, 301
Kingsley, Darwin P., 225
Kneeland, Natalie, 296, 297
Kruttschnitt, Julius, 199, 200

L

Latent powers, use of in inspirational speaking, 178
Later interviews, 346
Lauer, "Jack", 85
Layout, completed, 67
preliminary, 67
Library, use of, 105-121
Lindbergh, Colonel, 224
Literature, use of, 347
Logical reasoning, 196
Love and protect others, to, 39
Lovelace, Griffin M., 352
Low intelligence, 20

M

Main conference, 278
Main ideas, 67, 71, 72, 73, 74, 127, 145, 163, 166, 193, 194, 195
Manner of speaking, in conference, 252, 293, 324
Mannerisms, undesirable, 91
Mastery of the subject and meeting objections, 324
Material, how to find it, 99-121
McNamee, Graham, 238
Mechanical intelligence, 21
Meeting, conduct of, 242-245
Methods of preventing conferences, 329
Middle-aged people, influence on speech problems, 19
Mixed audiences, influence on speech problems, 19
Momentary interests, influence of, 46-48, 283, 285
Motor imagery, 63

N

Narrowing the question, 194
Neutral opinion, 27
New ideas, is hearer quick to adopt? 30-31
Nicholson, Meredith, 278
No, avoid a final, 344
how to say it, 335
No-responses, avoid arousing, 325

O

Observation as a source of facts, 102
Observe the conferee, 289, 340
Objections and questions, 307-336
  nature of, 307
Objections, cause of, 308
  effect of, 333
  meeting them and mastery of the subject, 324
  methods of meeting, 314-320
  particular in informative talks, 321
  particular in persuasive talks, 322
  secret of meeting, 313
  types of, 310
  universal, 320
Occasion, hearer's opinion about, 28
Ogilvie, George W., 129
Old people, influence on speech problems, 19
Olfactory imagery, 63
O'Neill, J. M., 64, 231
Opening the conference, 279
  on secondary and momentary interests, 285
Opinions, about the occasion, hearer's, 28
  about the speaker, 25
  about the subject, 27
Opportunities in public address, 5
Oral presentation, effective, 82-98, 180, 210, 222, 231, 236
  fundamentals in, 83
Oral reports, 11, 140-160, 254, 270
  examples of, 148-160
  use of charts in, 151, 152
Order of business, 243
Organizing a talk, 65-81, 197, 274
Our clients, 232
Outlining the speech, 79
Overstreet, H. A., 33, 288

P

Particular objections, 321, 322
  in informative talks, 321
  in persuasive talks, 322
Past success, use of in inspirational speaking, 177
People, what interests them, 35
Period reports, 141
Periodical literature, 109-114
  general periodicals, 110
  special business periodicals, 110-114
Persistent conferrer, 334
Personal conference, 12, 57, 249-365
  conferences, activity level in, 29
  knowledge as a source of facts, 101
  qualities developed by speech, 5
Personality, 349
  and suggestion, 53
Persuasive speaking, principles of, 3-122
Persuasive talks, particular objections in, 322
Phillips, A. E., 49
Plan for analysis, 266-268
Plan, need of in speech, 65
Planning the conference, 270-276
  the talk, 126
Platform conduct, 88
Points of agreement, use of, 292
Policy, discussions of, 191-207
Political groups, 24
Postponing decision, 345
Power, to have, 37
Pre-approach, definition of, 277
  use of, 277
Presentation, manner of, 128, 148
Primary interests, 21, 44
Primary wants, 41
Principles of persuasive speaking, 3-122
Promotional talks, 161-173
  example of, 167-173
Pronunciation, 95
Property, to acquire, 37
Public address, opportunities in, 5
  affairs information service, 106
  relations, 7
Purpose, immediate statement of, 281
  specific, 66, 69, 70, 72, 73, 126, 145, 162, 228, 257

Q

Qualities developed by speech, 5
Questions and objections, 307-336
  nature of, 307
Questions, cause of, 308
  effect of, 332
  how to answer, 310
  to secure information, 287
  to secure yes-responses, 287
  types of, 309
  use of in conferences, 287

R

Radio speaking, 12, 235-239
Raillery, gentle, 230
Railroad situation, 200-207
Rau, R. R., 142
Reader's guide, 106
Reading as a source of facts, 101-121
Recreation, to have, 40
Reference books, 107-109
  atlases and maps, 108
  biographical material, 109
  dictionaries, 108
  general encyclopedias, 107
  general yearbooks, 108
  special business encyclopedias, 107
  special business yearbooks, 109
Reiteration, 76
Religious groups, 24
Reports, conclusion of, 148
  defining and investigating the problem, 144
  definition of, 141
  importance of, 140
  introduction, 147
  models and demonstrations in, 147
  oral, 140-160
    examples of, 148-160
    general characteristics, 143
    preparation of, 144-148
  printed and mimeographed material in, 147
  types of, 141
    examination, 141
    period, 141
    research, 141
Reputation, to have good, 38
Research reports, 141
Response, conferee's, 327-336
Robert, H. M., 244

Rules of order, 244
Ryan, Quin, 237

S

Sales interview between Harrington and Alderson, 352-362
Sales, relations, 7
  talks, 12, 161-173, 254, 271, 322
Saunders, 140
Schwab, Charles M., 224
Scott, Walter Dill, 177
Secondary interests, 45, 283, 285
Secret of meeting objections, 313
Secret of successful closing, 339
Secretary, duties of, 243, 329
Sectional groups, 23
Securing effortless attention, 281
Securing the interview, 275
Self-confidence, 6, 293
Sense of communication, 83, 298, 299
Silence, effect of, 332
  use of in conferences, 303
Sincerity, 85, 298, 299
Slightly favorable opinion, 27
Slightly opposed opinion, 28
Snow, A. J., 20
Social groups, 24
Social intelligence, 21
Sources of business facts, 101-121
  experimentation, 103
  interviews and letters, 103
  observation, 102
  personal knowledge, 101
  reading, 104-121
  using them, 274
Speaker, audience's opinion about, 25
Speaker's age, influence of in suggestion, 53
  authority, influence of in suggestion, 55
  control of external conditions, 266
  prestige, influence of in suggestion, 56
Speaking, and the business organization, 6
  and individual success, 3
  and writing, 253
  problems in business, 4
Special publications, 114-119
  associations, 115-119
  corporations, 119
Special speech devices, 51-64
Specific cases, 75
Specific purpose, 66, 69, 70, 72, 73, 126, 145, 162, 257
Speech, composition, vividness in, 61
  conditions and suggestion, 56
  details, 74, 127, 146, 179
  devices, special, 51-64
  fundamental qualities of, 298
  influence of in suggestion, 55
  inspirational, 174-190
  plan, developing the, 68
  preparation, 237
  problems in business, 3-14, 30
  structure, 210, 230
  training in business, 6, 9
Speeches, preparing them for delivery, 96
Spillman, Harry C., 177
Statistics, 76
Stevenson, J. A., 52, 302, 311, 322
Strength of our company, 149-152
Striking, the influence of, 49, 229
Strong, E. K., Jr., 352
Strongly favorable opinion, 27
Strongly opposed opinion, 28
Stumes, Charles B., 76
Subject, 228
  audience's opinion about, 27
  hearer's knowledge of, 264
Sublimation, 175, 176, 178
Suggestion, 51-61
  and audiences, 57
  and hopes and aspirations, 59
  and personality, 53
  and speech conditions, 56
  and the familiar, 58
  and the yes-response technique, 58
  definition of, 51
  in the close, 348
  in young people, 18
  relation of to reason, 51
  using it directly, 57
Suggestions for inspirational speaking, 179
Superiority, feeling of, 229
Systematic practice, 13

T

Tact, 5, 296
Tactile imagery, 63
Talk, layout of, 66
  organization of, 65-81, 126, 228, 274
Tastes, to satisfy our, 40
Telephone speaking, 12, 239-241, 255
Terminal facilities, 337
Thermic imagery, 63
Things to avoid in good-will speeches, 209
Training for business speaking, 8
Trial close, 341
Twain, Mark, 228
Types of business speeches, 11, 125-245
  in conferences, 254

U

Universal objections, 320
Use of humor, 300
  of internal combustion engines in rail transportation, 153-160
  of literature, 347
  of questions in conference, 287
  of summary in the close, 349
  of the voice, 94, 300
  of wants, 40
Using common ground or points of agreement, 292
Utterance, distinctness of, 239
  making it pleasing, 94

V

Verbal intelligence, 21
Visual imagery, 62
Vital, the, 42
Vividness in speech composition, 61, 237
Vocal quality, 240
Voice, use of, 300
Voluntary attention, 34

W

Wants, 33, 50
  and interests, 33-50, 264
  appeal to, 178
  in young people, 19
  primary, 41

secondary, 41
their use, 40
to acquire property, 37
to avoid fear, 38
to be healthy, 36
to have a good reputation, 38
to have friends, 38
to have power, 37
to have recreation, 40
to imitate or to differ from others, 39
to love and protect others, 39
to satisfy our tastes, 40
Welcome, speeches of, 12, 255, 273
Welfare work of the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company, 211-221
Which Knew Not Joseph, 168
Willingness to experiment, in young, 18
Word formation, clear, 95
Writing and speaking, 253

Y

Yearbooks, general, 108
special business, 109
Yes-response, 58, 348
Young people, influence of on speech problem, 17
suggestion in, 18
wants of, 19

Seat 4 2nd row.

I. Delivery. 250 word speech to give Tuesday on any subject. Write out to hand in. Given T, Th, & Tagain.

II. Platform speeches. Oral reports. Report of factual information about an investigation. Sales speech (sell something in class). Inspirational speeches. Discussion of policy.

III. Conference speaking.

Oral reports:

Stick to facts (not opinion).

For class: group interest.

E.g., dorm. sit., opp. of library facilities, journalism bldg., new student center, student activities, museums on campus, honorary societies, M.T. lab, development of chem dept., physical plant, N.Y.A. work,

1. Frequency of occurrence.
2. " of recollection.
3. Intensity
4. Current interest.

Next Thurs.: Delivery Practice
week from Tues.: Discussion of Policy.
(Persuasive).
Politics, Economics, etc. 5 min.

Weidlein, E. R., & Hannor, W. A.,
Science in Action, McGraw Hill, 1931.